

# The Modern Language Journal

Volume XXXII

DECEMBER, 1948

Number 8

---

## Contents

THE NEED FOR A MORE COMPREHENSIVE FORMULATION OF THEORY OF LEARNING A SECOND LANGUAGE, <i>Ralph W. Tyler</i> .....	559
THE CULTURAL LAG IN MODERN LANGUAGES, <i>Arthur E. Evans</i> .....	568
COLLEGE READING COURSE IN FRENCH, <i>Newton S. Bement</i> .....	574
PORTUGUESE LITERATURE IN RECENT YEARS—1945–1947, <i>Gerald Moser</i> .....	581
AN EXPERIMENT WITH RECORDING AND PLAYBACK MACHINES IN ACADEMIC FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING, <i>John F. Ebelke</i> .....	589
EVALUATION OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING, <i>Victor Coutant</i> .....	596
SECOND YEAR RUSSIAN, <i>Frances de Graaff</i> .....	600
THEY LEARN SO EASILY, <i>Helen W. Machan</i> and <i>Hazel M. Messimore</i> .....	605
A TRIBUTE TO DR. EMILE DE SAUZÉ, <i>Walter W. DuBreuil</i> .....	608
PROFESSOR MORRIS C. BISHOP HONORED; DONALD WALSH ASSUMES NEW DUTIES....	609
NOTES AND NEWS (Address at Middlebury College by Professor Albert Farmer; The Place and Function of Modern Languages by Theodore Huebner; New Summer School by Francisco Ugarte; Foreign Language Enrollment, New York City.)..	610
ANNOUNCEMENTS AND NOTICE TO SUBSCRIBERS.....	615
REVIEWS.....	616
INDEX TO VOLUME XXXII, JANUARY, 1948–DECEMBER, 1948.....	627
DIRECTORY OF ADVERTISERS.....	638

(An index for the periodical year is published annually. Beginning with its inception in 1929, *The Education Index* covers the subject-matter of the MODERN LANGUAGE JOURNAL.)

---

*Published by*  
The National Federation of Modern  
Language Teachers Associations

# The Modern Language Journal

STAFF, 1948

## EDITORIAL ADVISORY BOARD

(Former Managing Editors)

E. W. BAGSTER-COLLINS, Columbia University, New York, N. Y. (1916-19).

BAYARD QUINCY MORGAN, Stanford University, California (1926-30).

CHARLES H. HOLZWARTH, University of Texas, Austin, Texas (1930-34).

HENRY GRATTAN DOYLE, The George Washington University, Washington, D. C. (1934-38).

EDWIN H. ZEYDEL, University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio (1938-43).

HENRI C. OLINGER, New York University, New York, N. Y. (1944-46).

## MANAGING EDITOR

JULIO DEL TORO, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan

## ASSISTANT TO MANAGING EDITOR

OTTO GRAF, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan

## ASSISTANT MANAGING EDITORS

(Review and Department Editors)

FRENCH—Louis Foley, Ecole Champlain, Ferrisburg, Vt.

ITALIAN—D. Vittorini, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.

PERSONALIA—William Marion Miller, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio.

PORTUGUESE—D. Lee Hamilton, University of Texas, Austin, Texas.

RUSSIAN—Lila Pargment, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.

SPANISH—James O. Swain, University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tenn.

(Survey Editors)

FRENCH—Cortland Eyer, The Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pa.

ITALIAN—O. A. Bontempo, College of the City of New York.

SPANISH AMERICAN—John T. Reid, University of California at Los Angeles.

PORTUGUESE—Gerald Moser, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois.

SPANISH—Angel González Palencia, University of Madrid, Madrid, Spain.

## BUSINESS MANAGER

STEPHEN L. PITCHER, 7144 Washington Avenue, St. Louis 5, Missouri

---

NOTE—Printed order of articles does not imply relative merit. Opinions expressed are not necessarily those of the editorial staff. The interest and the cooperation of all *Journal* contributors are appreciated.

All contributions should be typed and double-spaced, with the exception of long footnotes. Standard-sized white paper should be used, and only an original copy is acceptable. Unacceptable contributions accompanied by unattached postage will be returned. Prompt acknowledgment of receipt is best assured by the inclosure of a self-addressed post card.

## *The Need for a More Comprehensive Formulation of Theory of Learning a Second Language*

THE Investigation<sup>1</sup> of the Teaching of a Second Language was undertaken to study new language programs not so much with the aim of finding out which programs are better and which are worse but rather to gain a more adequate understanding of language learning and of ways of increasing its effectiveness. After the completion of the Modern Foreign Language Inquiry and the publication of the Coleman Report, a comparative lull in experiments and innovations in language teaching was broken by the development of new programs for the Armed Forces and of new materials and methods for teaching English to foreigners. New experiences and experiments in teaching a second language would, we thought, provide data to extend our knowledge of this important field. The testing of new hypotheses by actual experience should provide additional principles to guide our work as language teachers and to give us a more adequate conception of the whole field of language learning.

However, for experiments, experience, or any empirical data to contribute much to an understanding of a complex phenomenon like the learning of a second language, they need to be related to a fairly comprehensive formulation of theory. Experience is chaotic except as it is interpreted by basic concepts and hypotheses that relate the various aspects of experience and give meaning to what would otherwise be isolated events. For experiments to be intelligently planned so as to increase our knowledge of a field, they must be guided by hypotheses and provide empirical data that can be compared with conditions and results expected if the hypotheses are valid. In this way hypotheses can be tested, and accepted or revised, thus extending the basis for valid generalizations in this field. These basic concepts, these generalizations and hypotheses by which the phenomena of a field are described and explained constitute the theoretical structure of the field. For a new program or a new method to be significant in the light it casts upon the field, it needs to be related to this comprehensive theory, so as to indicate the respects in which the innovation is in harmony with or in opposition to, aspects of the theory or modifies the terms in which the theory is formulated.

<sup>1</sup> Investigation conducted at the University of Chicago. A Report will be published soon.

As we examined the various new developments in the teaching of a second language it soon became apparent that no overall, comprehensive theoretical structure regarding the learning of a second language had been formulated. Most of the new programs, as well as those established earlier, were described and explained in theoretical as well as operational terms but each theory was largely limited to its own segment of the field, and did not indicate explicitly the relation of this segment to any broader area. Each particular formulation defined the problem and the procedure in language learning in somewhat different terms, making comparison, contrast, checking and revision of theory almost impossible. The kinds of students to be taught, the ends to be attained, the psychological nature of language learning, the conditions under which effective learning takes place, the requisites of effective organization of learning experiences were either unstated or were largely expressed in unique terms making comparison impossible. Under these conditions we have had to infer many of the theoretical elements in the programs which we studied and have tried to translate unique elements into common and comparable terms. This is not satisfactory. Our inferences have at some points been in error. Our translations of terms have not been as accurate as would have been the formulations by those who have developed the programs and have seen more clearly their relations to the total field.

Perhaps the importance of a comprehensive formulation of theory of learning a second language can better be appreciated by noting the kinds of questions which such a formulation would seek to answer. The following questions are among the basic ones. Their order of treatment in a comprehensive theory may not parallel the order in which they are presented here since several of these questions are so interrelated that they require either simultaneous treatment or repeated references to each other.

One question which inevitably arises in describing and explaining the teaching of a second language is: Who can and should learn a second language? In several cases our inability to compare language programs was due to widely different selections of students in the several programs. We all know that people differ in many respects that may influence their learning. They differ in the facility with which they use their native language. They differ in social and cultural background which usually means marked differences in the content of vocabulary and the patterns of speech commonly used. They differ in their backgrounds of experience, in the purposes for which they might use a second language, in the meanings they have at their command, in their habits of work, in their degrees of motivation to learn, and in their physical and intellectual abilities.

Considering each of these types of variation, a comprehensive theory should include postulates, stating the relevance or irrelevance, of this variable in learning a second language. Furthermore, for each variable believed



to be significant in affecting language learning, postulates are needed to state within what range of the variable learning of this sort is possible or practicable. For example, facility in the use of their native language is probably a factor influencing the learning of a second language. For any language program, a statement is needed as to the level of facility in the use of their native language with which the program can effectively deal. Can the program effectively train students with only fifth grade reading ability? A clear formulation as to what is postulated regarding the characteristics of students who can learn a second language enables us to identify the points of similarity and of difference in various programs and to test these hypotheses under appropriate conditions, thus adding to our knowledge of the relation of various characteristics of students to effective language learning.

The second part of this question is also important. Among those who can learn a second language not all *should* learn one. There are some who can learn a second language only with such difficulty, such an expenditure of time and effort of both students and teachers as to make the learning too costly. There are also some whose opportunity to use the language, to maintain the language skills, to derive any satisfaction from the learning are so limited as to make the effort unwise. In terms of abilities, interests, motives, future possibilities for use of the language and the like, who *should* learn a second language? Each program needs to define the persons who *should* as well as who *can* learn the language, because the nature of the student body for which a program is developed is an important aspect in understanding the program and in testing its postulates.

A second question with which a comprehensive theory must deal is: What objectives should be sought with each type of student? One of our greatest difficulties in comparing the oral-aural approach with other approaches in teaching was the lack of any statement that would enable us to determine the points at which their objectives were similar. If the objectives of one program were solely the development of oral-aural skills, and of another program were solely the acquisition of facility in reading, then the testing of results in terms of the aims gives no basis for comparison or for adding to our general conception of language learning. However, the selection of objectives for teaching is not an arbitrary or capricious act. To devote the time and energy of schools and colleges to teaching anything assumes that what is being taught is important and worth teaching. Any educational program based on rational grounds requires that its aims be carefully considered in terms of the contribution such learning will make to society and to the individual.

Our comprehensive theoretical statement regarding the learning of a second language requires a section on the objectives that are desirable and attainable for each of the groups of persons who have been identified as

those who should learn a second language. Are those who are unlikely to go abroad to be taught the same language skills as those who spend each summer in a foreign land? If not, what will be the difference in objectives? If so, what social and personal values justify these objectives? It should be clear again that the answers to these questions are postulates, not final conclusions, and that, as hypotheses, they guide experimentation and the collection of empirical data which serve to test the postulates, thus leading to their acceptance, rejection or revision.

In some cases, we found statements of the general types of objectives sought and the justification for these aims in particular language programs, although they were rarely linked with any indication of the types of students for which these objectives were appropriate. In the so-called "intensive oral-aural" programs, for example, the development of oral-aural skills was often listed as the primary aim of language teaching on the grounds that: (1) these skills are essential for visitors in the foreign country and for other social and cultural contacts with foreigners, (2) the approach through oral-aural skills is more interesting to students and thus provides better motivation to learn, (3) the oral-aural approach provides a better basis for developing reading skills. Statements like these are helpful steps toward a more adequate formulation. They fall short of providing a basis for investigation because they do not specify the particular students for whom such objectives are appropriate and they do not define the level of oral-aural skills required in order to obtain the values postulated. As Mr. Dunkel points out in our final report, there is fairly general agreement as to the definition of a reading knowledge of the Indo-European languages. It is defined as: "The student can recognize approximately the first 2,000 words in the frequency counts made of written material in the languages for which these studies are available. In morphology and syntax, likewise, he is expected to have a recognition knowledge of the most common forms and grammatical patterns." With this recognition knowledge and by the use of dictionary and grammar he can plod through most literary material and scholarly material in his own field.

We have no such specific definition of the level of oral-aural skills to be aimed at. Each program used different vocabulary, syntax and situations. No statement was available as to the level of oral-aural skills required for a sound reading foundation. Until such statements are available the postulates regarding appropriate aims cannot be tested.

A third question with which a comprehensive theory must deal is: What is the nature of the learning of a second language? In the early learning of one's native language, the process is largely mechanical association, repetition after repetition of oral sounds, reaction after reaction to aural stimuli, in each case the sounds and the reactions become more and more accurate through approximation and continued correction. On the other hand, the

learning of new symbols at a later stage may be largely one of intellectual learning, associations being facilitated by understanding of principles, as in the case of many who learn algebraic symbolism.

Is the learning of a second language primarily mechanical association, or intellectual learning, or does it involve both? Are the early stages largely mechanical association while later stages largely involve reactions guided by understanding? Are there some students for whom mechanical association is the most effective learning process while for other students reactions guided by understanding are most appropriate? The various elements of any language program should be consistent with the nature of effective learning of a second language. The spelling out of postulates of this type would help both to give greater consistency to practical programs and to simplify and make more comprehensive the tests of these hypotheses.

In a number of cases, intensive oral-aural programs have been based upon explicit statements that the early stages of learning a second language, like the early stages of learning the first language, involve primarily mechanical association: association of aural stimuli with meanings; of one's own oral productions with meanings, and with the corresponding aural stimuli. This calls for continued repetitions of words, and of language patterns both as aural stimuli for the student and as oral productions by him, in situations in which meanings are clear. Grammar or other descriptive or explanatory principles of language structure and function have little or no place in such a program at the early stages. Such a statement of hypotheses is clear and provides the kind of theoretical formulation which is indispensable for the further development of knowledge of language learning. Similar statements relative to later stages of learning and to other types of programs are needed. The nature of effective learning of a second language is basic to any comprehensive theory.

A fourth question to be answered by theory is closely related to the third one. What is the role of practice in learning a second language? Does learning depend directly upon the amount of repetition? How much practice is required to achieve the desired aims? What are the learning elements to be practiced, that is, what are the situations and responses requiring repetition? What are the most favorable conditions for practice? When can practice be student directed? How should practice be distributed?

All theories of learning, whatever may be their disagreement on some postulates, recognize practice as a factor in learning. Repetition of appropriate responses in given situations is essential for learning to take place. However, few statements are available regarding the amount of practice deemed necessary to attain the desired goals. Current intensive oral-aural programs provide no more than 330 hours of directed practice spread over two years. Other programs usually provide much less. Does the amount of learning vary directly with the number of hours of practice? When can the

student take responsibility to provide his own practice? Skills begin to produce results that are satisfying to the learner after a certain level of competence has been reached, and beyond that level the student will continue practice of the skill because of its use and satisfaction to him. A comprehensive theory should indicate approximately what this level is for different objectives.

What is to be practiced is also a significant question. In learning a second language are new words and language patterns to be practiced in situations that associate them with words and language patterns of one's native language, or in situations that promote association with meanings that do not require the interposition of the native language?

The statement of conditions most favorable to effective practice is also essential to the development of adequate knowledge about learning a second language. When is individual practice necessary? How far is group practice effective? What factor in the practice situation should the learner attend to in order for repetitions to facilitate learning? All situations particularly language situations are complex. Both the situations and the responses desired are highly patterned phenomena. To discriminate those aspects of a complex aural or reading situation to which meaning responses are to be made requires some abstraction of aspects of the total situation to which the learner gives attention and makes responses. Sheer repetition of situations is not enough to insure desirable practice. Each language program needs to make explicit its theory regarding these various conditions for most effective practice.

The distribution of practice is also an important element in theory. It is related to the concept of forgetting, on the one hand, and over-learning on the other. Practice periods can be too widely spaced so that much forgetting intervenes with consequent loss of earlier training. On the other hand, practice periods can be too closely spaced so that boredom, fatigue, and other negative factors reduce effective learning. What is an highly effective spacing of practice for each kind of aim and each type of student should be formulated as part of our comprehensive theory.

A fifth question to be treated in this theoretical formulation is: What is the role of motivation in learning a second language? Does learning a second language depend largely upon the student's goals and purposes? Can extrinsic motives be used to stimulate learning? What rewards and punishments provide adequate motivation for language learning?

Studies of learning in all fields have demonstrated the primary importance of motivation, that is, the direction and regulation of the learner's behavior toward a goal. Without motivation on the part of the learner, his practice is perfunctory and little or no learning takes place. And among possible motives, some usually prove more effective than others. In this appraisal of motives several kinds are commonly distinguished. Among the

motives more frequently viewed as effective are those which grow directly out of the learner's own purposes and goals so that he views the learning process as promoting his goals, and those which are intrinsic to the learning itself, that is, direct interest in the things being learned or direct satisfaction from the learning. On the other hand, motives commonly viewed as undesirable include those growing out of externally imposed rewards and punishments, and extrinsic motives which are only indirectly related to the learning itself, such as school marks. Since motives so powerfully influence learning, the kinds of motives that are effective for different language objectives and for different groups of students need to be formulated in the outlines of our comprehensive theory.

A sixth question to be dealt with is: To what extent and how is transfer of learning from one situation to another involved in the learning of a second language? All learning implies some transfer of training, that is, some ability to make learned responses in situations that in some respects are not identical with those in which the responses were learned. However, the extent of transfer possible and the conditions under which desirable transfer takes place have long been hotly debated points in the theory of learning. Now, there is fairly general agreement that the transfer of learning from one situation to another is roughly proportional to the degree to which the situations are similar in structure or meaning. But the similarity in structure and in meaning are largely subjective concepts, they are perceived by persons as similar. In effect, then, transfer of learning takes place in so far as the learner perceives similarities of structure or meaning between the new situations and the ones in which he learned the responses. This means that an important aspect of learning involves recognizing similarities between situations which make it appropriate to respond in the same fashion to both, and also discriminating differences between situations which make it inappropriate to respond in the same fashion to both.

In the case of learning a second language, how far are language patterns, syntax, related vocabulary, such as words formed by prefixes and suffixes more effectively developed through transfer, that is, through generalization and discrimination, and how far are they to be learned in each specific instance? At what point, if at all, can the carefully controlled vocabulary and syntax be dropped and the learner be expected to handle his language problems effectively as he encounters them in the uncontrolled language of daily discourse and of periodicals and books? What means are effective in making this transfer of learning possible? Is transfer facilitated by learning language rules, or by large amounts of repetition, or by other means of understanding or habituation? This is a significant matter for a comprehensive theory of the learning of a second language.

The seventh question includes parts of some of the previous questions but has a different focus. In what ways can language learning activities be



effectively organized? The organization of language learning activities refers to the way in which they are related among themselves, and to the other learning activities and experiences of the student. The purpose of an effective organization of learning activities is to produce a maximum cumulative effect. One activity, one lesson, even one week of learning activities have little permanent affect on the learner. However, if these activities are continuous in their nature, if the activities of this month build on those of last month and those of next month build on this month and if each subsequent year builds upon the previous year, marked changes take place in the learner. The cumulative effect of learning experiences can be much greater when properly organized than would be true with the same time devoted to a miscellaneous collection of learning experiences.

To take fullest advantage of the possibilities of increasing the cumulative effect of learning activities through their effective organization we need to consider not only organization over time, that is, the sequence of learning activities from day to day, month to month and year to year, but also integration, that is, the relation of language learning activities at a given time to the other learning activities the student is engaged in during the same week, month and year. What the student does in English, Science, History or on the playground, at home or in the community can be experiences that reenforce language learning, or they can hinder effective language learning. The ideal organization would be one in which the organization of language learning activities both in relation to sequence and to integration was such as to produce the maximum cumulative effects from all the activities in the student's learning.

In developing a theory of organization for the learning of a second language several questions regarding the nature of effective sequence must be answered. How are the learning activities in the second language related to the student's use of his native language? Should the new language activities build upon his experiences with his native language or are the latter irrelevant to effective learning of a second language? If in oral-aural development an informant provides the aural stimuli in the early stages, at what stage in the sequence can phonemic transcriptions serve to facilitate oral production by the student? If several language skills, oral, aural, reading are to be developed, what sequence of development will provide for the greatest command of each and their effective articulation in normal language situations? More generally, the question needing to be answered is: What are the principles guiding the development of a sequence of language learning activities?

Certain questions about integration should also be treated in our comprehensive formulation of theory. What kinds of facilitating connections can be made between language learning activities and other learning experiences of the student? What kinds of experiences in other classes and outside of school increase student motivation for language learning? What



opportunities can be provided for the student to use his language skills in other courses? How far is language learning aided by using radio programs and transcriptions in the second language at school clubs or at home? Do foreign motion pictures facilitate further use of language learnings outside the class room? More generally we need to know what are the principles to guide the planning of integration. As postulates are formulated to answer questions of this sort relating to sequence and integration a theory of the organization of learning activities will be developed.

The seven major questions which have been listed are not an exhaustive outline of matters requiring to be treated in a comprehensive theory of the learning of a second language, but they are representative of those seen by a student of learning. From your background as students of language you can fill in the other side of the coin. Although partial theoretical formulations have been made, the large number of experiments and experiences in teaching a second language cannot be brought together in any satisfactory way to give us adequate knowledge in this field because the particular area in the field that each experiment or experience covers cannot be identified. Can we not work together in the future as we have during the past few years trying to develop a comprehensive theory and seeking to validate each major postulate by testing its implications in practice? In this way it should be possible to multiply our knowledge and control of language learning many fold. The learning of language is so basic to all education that to broaden our frontiers in this field is to extend the boundaries of basic principles of education.

RALPH W. TYLER

*University of Chicago*

## *The Cultural Lag in Modern Languages*

DURING an active career of approximately thirty years, the writer has spent much time sitting in convention meetings listening to able speakers, who used their eloquence to convince him that the time allotted to language teaching in the high school should be materially increased. But, however much conviction such arguments may bring to us, who have no need of being convinced, the language program continues to languish, to a point where an adequate amount of attention is given to it only in the better universities and colleges, in fair sized city systems, and in private finishing and preparatory schools.

In a very large percentage of the smaller high schools throughout the United States, any instruction in this entire field is confined to one or two years of Latin, *or* of French, *or* of Spanish. In other words, if the subject is found at all in the curriculum, it is represented by a choice between a smattering of the rudiments of Latin and a few crumbs of whatever foreign idiom happens to be popular educationally at the moment.

This decline in language teaching is not a temporary condition but represents one of the modern phases of an educational conflict which is as old as Christianity itself. The fact is that, whether we realize it or not, we teachers have become alined with the losing forces in the age-old battle between the cultural and the practical subjects. In the eyes of the average secondary school administrator, instigated and abetted by the teachers' colleges and the schools of education of the great universities, German, French, and Spanish are considered, along with Greek and Latin, as not yielding sufficient tangible results to make them socially useful to the average student.

Hence, this entire branch of learning is either crowded out altogether, as in many of the modern rural schools, or inserted into the curriculum grudgingly as a concession to the college entrance requirements. Naturally, such a situation in the public schools has its repercussion in the college field, for by lessening the possibility of obtaining teaching positions, it tends to remove the incentive for taking the advanced courses.

The present article has only a modest remedy to propose for this situation, but it will confine itself chiefly to tracing one phase of the history of foreign language teaching in the United States as an interesting example of the never-ending struggle between the traditional and progressive forces in

education. As a result of this internal conflict, the higher institutions of learning have nearly always lagged for at least a generation behind the social, political, and economic movements of their era.

The so-called "cultural lag" operates in the following manner: During a given period, these institutions adhere to a definite body of teaching material which the educators of that epoch regard as representing culture. Changing conditions in the world outside the schools create the need for new learning, which gradually forces its way into the program. After it has been accepted, the savants explore its cultural possibilities and eventually incorporate it into the traditional curriculum, which they again prepare to defend against new encroachments.

The process outlined above has been continuing at least since the early centuries of the Christian era, when the formula of the Seven Liberal Arts was adapted from the Greek. With various branches of philosophy developed after the rediscovery of Aristotle, they constituted the liberal arts program of the medieval university down to the time of the Renaissance. They were presented in ecclesiastical Latin, which was the universal language of educated men. Being also the medium in which church services were conducted, this form of Latin was highly practical and essential in the preparation for a religious career.

When the Renaissance swept over Europe, Humanist scholars discovered in the classical literature of Greece and Rome an entirely unsuspected wealth of reflections on all phases of human thought and activity. They began an instant fight for the substitution of this new and vital subject matter for the outworn and obsolete studies of the Middle Ages. And, since the classics which they championed are still regarded by countless scholars as the basis of the liberal arts program, we might reasonably have expected to find the universities in the thick of the fight for their adoption.

Much to the contrary, the college professors were quite likely to be found in the city square, busily engaged in burning the books which contained the new learning, and burning the authors along with their books whenever they could catch them. That this statement is not too much overdrawn is attested by the fate of Étienne Dolet, who was hanged and burned with his books in a Paris city square in 1546, following his denunciation by the Sorbonne as a heretic. William Tyndale in England and Giordano Bruno in Italy were two more who suffered the same fate.

The Battle of the Classics was fought out in France during the sixteenth century, and at about the same time or a little later in England. It subsided with the classical languages and literatures firmly established as the basis of instruction, where they remained until well into the nineteenth century. In the meantime, a new movement was starting in the outer world, to which the schoolmen were largely oblivious, but which is still having a tremendous effect upon modern education.

The Age of Enlightenment coincides in its duration almost exactly with the American Colonial Period. It was prepared for during the Renaissance by the heliocentric theory and the Newtonian science, which shook men's faith in revealed religion and in the static nature of the universe and of human society. The physical sciences were developed and the human outlook was shifted from the past to the future. Its keynote was an unbounded faith in the new science and the rule of natural law.

For a long time the principal European educational establishments went their way almost untouched by the Enlightenment. The Scotch and German schools were more responsive, but those of France and England were slow in catching the spirit. It is a significant fact that Voltaire, Rousseau, Montesquieu, Diderot, d'Alembert, and the other *philosophes* who prepared the French Revolution were all outside the university; and the same was true in England of Bacon, Hobbes, Locke, and Hume, and later of Bentham, Gibbon, Carlyle, Mill, Darwin, and Spencer.

In the New World, our colonial fathers received the full impact of the Enlightenment, and the American Revolution was its first wide-scale political fruit. Harvard College, founded in 1636 on the model of one of the colleges of Cambridge University, first felt the movement beating at its doors in the attempts of its students to obtain instruction in the modern languages. With that early beginning, Harvard has been for over three centuries a battle ground for and against all innovations in the field of higher education.

Harvard resisted this first assault of utilitarianism for almost an even century before yielding to the pressure and permitting its students to take French from a licensed teacher, Louis Langloiserie. He was followed by several others with the same unofficial status, but the first one who had a real connection with the school was Joseph de Nancrède, appointed as instructor in 1787. Not until 1817 did it dignify the modern languages with a professorship, bestowed upon George Ticknor, who was the first real scholar in this field in the United States.

The story of the modern languages at Harvard was duplicated more or less closely in a great majority of the American colleges down to the middle of the nineteenth century. Looked upon with condescension as being merely ornamental or at best mildly utilitarian, they were never admitted to a position of equality with the traditional branches of learning. The people who taught them received about half of the pay of the regular professors, and they were rated at half the value of Greek and Latin in determining grades and honors.

Since they were held in low esteem by the authorities, the students themselves naturally had a tendency to treat them lightly. An eminent Harvard alumnus, writing in later years, said of the work of Ticknor's assistant, Francis Sales: "His French classes were large, but were composed

mainly of students who sought amusement rather than instruction, and whose chief aim was to impose on his long-suffering nature, and to put him to his wits' ends in the vain endeavor to preserve some show of discipline."

In the academies and technical schools, such as Rensselaer Institute and Massachusetts Institute of Technology, this field of study had a much more favorable reception. Created in response to popular needs, these institutions admitted French and German freely and treated them on an equal footing with history, the physical and natural sciences, and the sciences as applied to the trades and industry. But in the liberal arts colleges they were introduced only grudgingly and accorded scant courtesy.

Immediately after the Civil War, an educational movement started which was to transform the entire status of the modern languages. Again, Harvard was one of the focal points in the change. When Dr. Charles W. Eliot went there as president in 1869, he found a small, conservative college with a few hundred closely supervised and rigidly disciplined schoolboys and sixty teachers.

Upon his retirement just forty years later, Dr. Eliot left behind him as a monument to his organizational genius a great university with five thousand students and a faculty of six hundred, offering professional and graduate training in the major branches of human knowledge. The same period witnessed the creation of the high school accrediting system by the University of Michigan and the birth of three renowned educational establishments: Johns Hopkins, founded in 1876; Leland Stanford, in 1885; and the University of Chicago, in 1891.

With the rise of the American university, modern language teaching came into its own. One of the necessary conditions for the formation of these institutions was the expansion of the liberal arts course and the adoption of some form of an elective system, to enable a student better to meet the requirements of the professional schools. This multiplied by many times the undergraduate courses and gave rise to departments with large staffs of highly specialized faculty members.

The modern languages followed this road. Encouraged during the early days of the university movement for their practical value in graduate work and research, they were speedily laid hold of by the language savants and developed and explored in all of their cultural ramifications. Especially during the first third of the present century, departments of German and Romance Languages have arisen in which every phase of the respective languages is treated in detail. There are specialists in the literature and art of the country with its philosophy and political vicissitudes, and in the philology, morphology, and historical grammar of the idiom itself.

In a word, the exponents of culture and mental discipline have accepted the modern languages and incorporated them into the regular curriculum. As good traditionalists as the best, the linguistic experts have joined hands

with the Greek and Latin scholars and the pure mathematicians and are earnestly engaged in holding the fort against the encroachment of the utilitarian spirit. They look with jaundiced eyes upon the schools of business administration, education, and forestry, and fight bitterly for the retention of Latin, modern languages, and mathematics among the required subjects for college entrance.

For, once more, all is not well in the world without the college walls. The modern languages have been weighed in the balance by the public school leaders and found wanting. The reason is not that they might not have some practical value, but that, if they were pursued long enough to be so, they would consume an undue proportion of the pupil's time. It is idle for language theorists to prattle of three-year, four-year, and even of six-year courses in a school system which is so packed with things to be learned that a subject is automatically ruled out if it cannot produce tangible results within one or two years.

The present revolution in secondary education goes back about fifty years to the pragmatic philosophy of William James, to Thorndike's educational psychology, which discredited the idea of mental discipline and the transfer of learning, and to John Dewey's theories of training for social usefulness. At the turn of the century the average high school was a small establishment catering largely to the children of the wealthier residents, many of whom were planning on going away to college.

From such a modest beginning, the high school has grown into a great local institution serving the intellectual, social, and recreational needs of a constituency often spread over an area of many square miles. No longer confining itself to the conventional academic subjects, it directs, supervises, or guides a major part of the activities of the children and influences the lives of their parents in countless ways.

Any subject comes within its scope which will help to raise the level of the life of the community. It provides machinery for shop work, tools for handicrafts and craftsmanship, equipment for typing, accounting, and office practice, and chemicals and implements for agriculture. Moreover, it furnishes entertainment for young and old in athletics, supervision for playground activities, and edification in dramatic and musical productions.

Notwithstanding the immense increase in the range of its activities, the high school does not disregard its function of preparation for college, although it may in some cases unduly emphasize the other phases of its work. But with the great influx of pupils which has resulted from this new conception of secondary education, it can no longer devote all of its attention to the relatively small number of potential college students.

There is not much comfort in this picture for our colleagues who are dreaming of longer courses of study to meet the post-war demands for a better oral command of French or Spanish. Those longer courses will never



come in the secondary field excepting in private schools and the larger city high schools. Whatever tangible results are obtained in the great majority of our preparatory institutions must be acquired within the present two-year period.

The writer is reasonably certain that much more can be done within this time than has usually been the case up to the present; but, whether by a new approach or by renewed devotion to the old approaches, it can be attained only by accepting the situation as it is, and then by setting up attainable goals and working toward them with zeal and intelligence.

In no other field are these possible goals so many and varied; for a language is not only a tool for the transmission of all the manifestations of the human intelligence but also a plastic medium which may be molded into artistic forms just as the painter spreads his pigment. The mastery of a language implies a reasonable control of its mechanics, but more than that it demands a thorough knowledge of the history, art, and intellectual accomplishments of the people who employ it.

Naturally, such knowledge requires years of study, far beyond what even the brighter students have at their disposal. Many an excellent teacher has lost himself in a maze of details in the effort to cover a fraction of this material. Common sense, therefore, demands that we use our intelligence to discover those phases which can be taught in the time at our disposal and drive toward them with all the teaching skill and energy which we possess.

ARTHUR E. EVANS

*Lambuth College  
Jackson, Tennessee*

## *College Reading Course in French*

THE college reading course in foreign language inevitably evokes the same suspicions as did once the "reading-objective" course in which "reading" was synonymous with "minimum" and the objective was to keep the subject in the curriculum by reducing the dosage to the taste of those who found the foreign-language course too strongly flavored with foreign language. And it is fraught with the same dangers. They reside in the fact that students seeking the easiest way to fulfill a foreign-language requirement (where such exists), especially those who have avoided as long as possible the study of a foreign language, may provide a most undesirable clientele. Decoying this group away from the standard, multiple-objective college course in French might render a valuable service to the latter, but a disservice might just as readily result if the reading course were of a nature to serve such a purpose and foster thereby a contagion capable of contaminating the more desirable student as well. There are several ways of preventing it from serving such a purpose.

In the first place, the student seeking to avoid the standard course because he dreads having to learn to pronounce a foreign language, to write it, and to understand it when spoken, finds his joy over the reading course salubriously sobered if it requires him not only to comprehend accurately what he reads, but also to pronounce it well. This latter requirement exists solely for the purpose of facilitating and accelerating the acquisition of a serviceable reading knowledge. Its fulfillment, however, since among the objectives of foreign-language study pronunciation has potentially the greatest aesthetic value, is generally in itself a source of satisfaction to the average earnest student.

Comprehension, too, may take on the aspects of a formidable task, if the student is required to furnish proof of it. The student who achieves complete comprehension, and who possesses the English language, can translate, can re-clothe the idea in current English garb. If not, he must learn more English. Do I hear any objection to learning one's native tongue? The majority of intelligent English-speaking persons never cease doing so, despite the sophistries of rapid- or extensive-readers or half-comprehensionists. Modern learning for earning, moreover, is bound in the interests of efficiency to include a first-rate ability in the vernacular, else the possessor's selling power is likely to be hopelessly impeded.

It must be granted that translation as an advanced professional art implies a perfect knowledge of both languages, and granted also that the read-

ing course is intended to develop only a passive knowledge of the foreign language, but in neither of these facts does there reside a valid reason for excusing the student from an active knowledge of the English language nor, above all, from the effort at least of attempting to extend his knowledge of it. Methodology so far as it bears upon this particular point has no connection whatever with methodology in the multiple-objective course. It is not concerned with the acquisition of a foreign language, nor, consequently, with the removal of the English-pattern barrier standing between the student and the practice of the foreign tongue.

Truly rapid comprehension can result, in the end, from nothing but painstaking, even slow, comprehension of all newly encountered vocabulary, although repeated encounters with the same vocabulary may create the illusion of speed and undoubtedly do decrease the total learning time per unit of vocabulary. The rapid reading which results from word repetition in specially prepared texts is not to be confused with the procedure which I have chosen to refer to above as that of the "half-comprehensionists." The use of this artifice is a top "must" in the course designed to teach the student rapidly to read.

A third preventive measure may be achieved by limiting the enrollment to juniors and seniors, but this is preferably to be avoided on the assumption that faculty advisers will guide the undergraduate to or away from the special reading course according to his individual academic or preprofessional needs. The same purpose is better served by opening the course to those graduate students who, as candidates for an advanced degree, are required to demonstrate a reading knowledge of the foreign language as used in their various fields of specialization, and who for one reason or another are unable to do so, especially in times of interrupted educations.<sup>1</sup> Furthermore, this inclusion tends to raise the standard of performance in the reading course. Undergraduate students, with the usual certain unfortunate exceptions, tend to emulate the graduates, while the latter tend to maintain and if possible increase their superiority. From the instructor's viewpoint teaching efficiency can be improved through segregational sectioning, but peak performance for the total enrollment appears to be reached at least as readily when sections are composed of equal numbers of graduates and undergraduates.

A final measure to insure the validity of the special reading course consists in so arranging the amount and difficulty of course content that it will

<sup>1</sup> This is reflected by recent enrollment figures for the course, which in the first semester rose from 39 in 1944-45 to 47 in 1945-46, 89 in 1946-47, 116 in 1947-48, and 164 in 1948-49 (plus 52 continuing in the second half of the course offered for the first time in the first or fall semester). In 1946-47 it became necessary to start the course (two semesters of four hours each per week) also in the second semester, for an enrollment of 41, which rose to 57 in 1947-48. In 1948 the course was offered for the first time in the summer session, on the petition of students pressed for time in which to complete their university work.

equal or surpass the reading content of the standard multiple-objective course of twice its duration. This implies a rapid pace and a curve of difficulty totally devoid of plateaus. In this connection a note of warning seems in order. Once the advanced student, such as the graduate who is preparing his ability to read French in his own special field, has reached the point where he can undertake this type of reading, he generally feels quite at home in it, owing to his familiarity with the subject and the great similarity of French and English terminology, which has a common base in what may be termed the "school Latin" of each language. There are exceptions remarkable for their difficulty: in the field of literary criticism, for example; but in general French is the easiest of foreign languages for the student to read in technically specialized fields.

This fact is counterbalanced at the outset by the difficulty of French pronunciation, but at the advanced-reading stage all other foreign languages easily outstrip French in difficulty. Or at least such is the opinion of some who have attempted to achieve in other foreign languages, in the same amount of time, the objectives of the special reading course which I am about to outline, occupying eight semester hours. Other foreign languages may require a longer or a different course, or one course for graduates and another for undergraduates.

The primary desideratum in setting up a college reading course in French appears to be a college-level, basic textbook containing practical elementary instruction in pronunciation, with adequate exercises for immediate use, and presenting, in addition to the basic facts of French grammar, a grammatically graded series of texts illustrating all types of construction and grammatical usage from the simplest to the very advanced. Above all, its exposition must be so lucid and so thorough, its illustrative material so adequate and so precisely translated into English, that the instructor will never need to supplement either in the classroom and will thus be free to devote all classroom time to *practice*, that is, to the *reading of French texts*, from the outset.

Only the adequate textbook can place responsibility upon the student, who in many instances has been accustomed to let someone else, such as the teacher, do his reading and understanding for him. The passive habit of being entertained through someone else's efforts, now fostered in American youth from earliest childhood by the easy accessibility and mental age level of the average radio program, and the habit of indulging extensively in spectator sports, may have undermined insidiously the mental and physical development of many teen-age undergraduates, by comparison with what it could have been. Methodology in the college reading course in French makes no contribution to the soporifics of modern education. On the contrary, it is inclined slightly in the direction of the sudorific school.

The student, after three or four class periods devoted exclusively to the

practice of pronunciation, continues in the basic textbook, not at the rate of two or several lessons per assignment in order to "complete" the grammar or otherwise dispose of it, but at the rate of one lesson per day. In conjunction with this single lesson he is given also an assignment in an elementary graded reader. This is not for the purpose of remedying a defect in the basic textbook, which is in itself a preparatory reader, each of its lessons containing a carefully introduced French text on a short subject. The parallel assignments in a graded reader act as supplementary vocabulary builders and contributors of volume and variety in reading experience. So, also, do the short "sight" passages which occur at intervals in the basic textbook in order to encourage the student to test the strength of his flight feathers.

As for the choice of graded readers, the Bond (Heath-Chicago) series<sup>2</sup> appears to serve the purpose well, and offers alternate readers which lend variety and lose nothing by comparison with the books of the original series.

The student, on the opening day of the course, finds himself in possession of a multigraphed bibliography and a list of fifty-nine or sixty numbered assignments which constitute the work of the first semester. On reaching the third assignment he finds that it specifies the third lesson in the basic textbook and the first three pages of Book I of the graded-reader series. With the twenty-fifth assignment he completes Lesson 25 in the basic textbook and the final pages of graded reader Book II. But the following assignment does not take him into Book III. Instead, it consists of Lesson 26 of the basic textbook and the first five pages of graded reader Book IV. This he takes in stride. When he has taken thirty-eight lessons in the basic textbook he discovers, on reaching assignment No. 39, that work in the textbook has been discontinued. In its stead he finds, in addition to the assignment of pages 29-37 in graded reader Book V, a notice to begin, as "outside" reading, graded reader Book III, to be finished by the time he reaches assignment No. 47, and a book report in readiness. This he easily handles at this stage, this first outside reading having become, at this point, an insured plateau.

On the other hand, in the classroom, on the day following the completion of graded reader Book V, he finds no mention of Book VI or Book VII, but an assignment of pages 1-7 of Book VIII. With Book VII he will have no dealings, but on the day following the completion of Book III as outside reading, his assignment notifies him to start reading Book VI on the same basis, to be finished by the time he reaches assignment No. 55. In the classroom, after Book VIII, he reads Duhamel, *Les Jumeaux de Valangoujard*, which occupies the remainder of the semester.

<sup>2</sup> This is not a "plug." To his knowledge the writer is unknown to any whose publications happen to be mentioned in this article.

The content of the final examination is outlined to the student as soon as the semester's work is under way. Question I (20 points) will consist of ten sentences between two and three typewritten lines in length, taken from the French texts of the basic textbook or utilizing the same vocabulary, constructions, and idioms. They will be as difficult as the material will permit. Question II (60 points) will consist of six passages, between seven and nine typewritten lines in length, taken from the material assigned for classroom reading. They will be fairly difficult; that is, not quite the most difficult that the material affords. Question III (10 points) will be a single passage of about twelve typewritten lines, from the material assigned for outside reading, of average difficulty and narrative in character. Question IV (10 points) will be the sight translation of about twenty typewritten lines of exposition, difficulty to be comparable to that of Question III. Class averages on this examination are likely to be above eighty and may approach ninety, which is too high for discriminatory purposes.

The course may not be elected for credit by students who have already received credit for high-school or college French, and no credit for the first semester is given until the second has been satisfactorily completed. The first assignment of the second semester, is a review of the lessons on pronunciation in the basic textbook, plus pages 3-11 of Chinard, *Scènes de la vie française*, or an equivalent of later date which is less likely to be out of print. Thus the course bows gracefully to the idea that any student may well learn something or even a great deal about the country and people whose language is about to become his new window upon the world of literature and ideas. The next twelve assignments complete whatever book of this character and length is used, together with the remaining twelve of the fifty lessons of the basic textbook.

Next in order come Mérimée, *Carmen*; Romain, *Knock*; one of the various collections of short stories or else a collection on the order of Micks and Rideout, *Témoins d'une époque*, whose character is well suited to the training needs of graduate students; and finally Anatole France, *Le Livre de mon ami*, for which the alternate might be Alain-Fournier, *Le Grand Meaulnes*, with the reservation that as an experience of linguistic style it is not comparable to France's work which the mature student invariably savors, while to the world-weary it offers a romantic escape unexcelled in literary quality among texts edited for student use at this level. It is perhaps needless to add that illustration of course content by citation of specific titles is intended to avoid the vagueness resulting from generalizations or multiple specifications concerning categories of material. Any other bibliography might serve as well or better within the categories exemplified. The amelioration of course content is an endless process, and that of methodology, organization, and administration sometimes precedes it and sometimes follows in its wake, with the result that the course is constantly obsolescent.



At the present moment, second-semester required outside reading for undergraduates is Ève Curie, *Madame Curie*, and Tristan Bernard, *Visites nocturnes*. It can be varied greatly, and additional optional reading recommended to individuals. There are several good offerings among French books recently edited for classroom use. In addition, current publications of Le Cercle du Livre de France,<sup>3</sup> like those of its pre-war counterpart, Sélection Séquana, cover a variety of interests and provide serviceable additions to the instructor's lending library.

For graduates the first outside-reading assignment of the second semester is a book dealing with the individual's field of specialization in the narrowest sense. The instructor can select the book only after consultation with the student, who frequently requests assignment of a specific title recommended as essential for his graduate work by those in charge of it.<sup>4</sup> In any case the instructor must acquire a considerable familiarity with modern and recent French publications in many specialized fields, before he can set an intelligent examination thoroughly testing the ability of the student to acquire accurate and often highly technical knowledge through the medium of the foreign language. On this first book the student takes a translation test consisting of a 500-word passage to be translated in one hour without a dictionary. Thereafter he is given a list of books of less specialized content, applying to the general field in which his specialized field happens to fall, and in which he may read at will, as practice in "general" reading basic to his specialized field of activity.

In other ways as well, the treatment of the graduate student is differentiated from that of the undergraduate. Since his purpose is finally to acquire the ability to deal with material in his field, he is allowed to apply to the university examiner connected with the graduate school, whenever he feels qualified, for examination. If he passes, he has fulfilled his requirement. Because he has taken care to make adequate preparation and to have the instructor estimate at intervals the growth of his ability, he almost invariably passes. As many as fifty per cent of the graduate students fulfill their requirement in this manner at the middle or before the end of the second semester. If they elect simply to continue in the course, their requirement is fulfilled by passing it with a grade of B or better.

The final examination likewise distinguishes between graduate and un-

<sup>3</sup> Incorporated, 119 West 57th Street, New York 19, N. Y.

<sup>4</sup> For example, in American history: Maulevrier, *Voyage dans l'intérieur des États-Unis et au Canada*, Baltimore, Johns Hopkins Press, 1935. In Latin-America history: Bellegrade, *La Nation haïtienne*, Paris, Gigord, 1938. In metallurgical engineering: Rouelle, *La Fonte (Élaboration et travail)*, Paris, Armand Colin, 1921. In 19th-century English literature: Cazamian, *Carlyle*, Paris, Blous, 1913. In physical chemistry: Trillat, *Les Applications des rayons X (Physique—Chimie—Métallurgie)*, Paris, Presses Universitaires, 1930. In biological chemistry: Florin, *L'Évolution biochimique*, Liège, Desoer, 1944. In bacteriology: Bezançon, *Précis de microbiologie clinique*, Paris, Masson, 1920. In forestry: Jacquot, *Sylviculture, Manuel pratique*, Paris, Baillière, 1931.

dergraduate students. For the undergraduate, Question I (75 points) consists of one passage of some twenty typewritten lines from each of the five books assigned for classroom reading. Difficulty is achieved by selecting passages requiring very careful reading and strict attention to multiple and minute details of construction. Question II (15 points) presents two passages of some sixteen typewritten lines each, that is, one from each of the two books assigned for outside reading. They are of moderate difficulty; that is, neither the most difficult, nor the easiest. Question III (10 points) is a sight translation, offering about sixteen lines of moderately difficult exposition. The class average on this examination is likely to be somewhat lower than that of the first semester, but rarely as low as 75, and the individual results show a better spread.

The graduate student takes Question I of the same examination, but for the remaining 25 points he translates a 500-word passage from one of the books in his "general" field of reading. The passage is selected by the university examiner and for this part of the examination the student is permitted to use a dictionary. His result for the total is not likely to fall below 87 points, nor below 22.5 points for the passage from general reading.

Teaching problems in the reading course do not vary appreciably from those encountered in connection with the corresponding aspects of the standard multiple-objective course. The effort of the student is merely more concentrated, and the work of the instructor more specialized. With extremely rare exceptions the attitude of the student is so purposeful as to leave little to be desired, creating in the mind of the instructor either the certainty or a very satisfactory illusion that the course is highly appreciated by a well-screened clientele.

NEWTON S. BEMENT

*University of Michigan*

## Portuguese Literature in Recent Years—1945-1947

SINCE this is the first time that Portuguese literature has been surveyed in the *Journal*, it seems appropriate to review briefly the publications of recent years.<sup>1</sup> The year 1945 was chosen as the starting point because it was the centenary of José Maria Eça de Queiroz, who—more than any other prose writer—has secured Portugal a place in modern European literature.

The Eça centenary caused a veritable high tide of commemorative literature to flow from 1944 to 1947 in both Portugal and Brazil. Worthy of particular mention is the *Livro do centenário de Eça de Queiroz*, a vast collection of papers published under the direction of Lúcia Miguel Pereira and Câmara Reis (Lisbon and Rio, 1945). The work was a rare instance of intellectual cooperation among a great many living writers and critics of Brazil and Portugal. The Portuguese critic, João Gaspar Simões, wrote a new, minute study of Eça's personality (*Eça de Queiroz, o homem e o artista*, Lisbon and Rio, 1945), which takes its place beside the older studies by António Cabral (1920), Álvaro Lins (1939, reedited in 1945) and Vianna Moog (1939). Equally important are the reeditions of Eça's own writings, among them a centenary edition of his complete works launched in 1946. The Eça bibliography assembled by Victor de Sá (*Bibliografia queirosiana*, Braga, 1945) will perform a great service as a time saver, especially for students. Although published too early to contain the bulk of commemorative items, its handy list of over 200 articles on Eça gives it permanent value.

The Eça celebrations indicate that it would be very wrong to assume that Portuguese letters form an airtight compartment. Ties which seem tenuous to casual observers continue to link Portugal and Brazil. Intellectuals ply between the two countries, accentuating by their travels the shifts in population, trade and politics. A good example on the Portuguese side is Fidelino de Figueiredo, dean of Portuguese literary historians, who divides his life between Lisbon and São Paulo; according to latest information, he has returned to the University of São Paulo, where he teaches

<sup>1</sup> Not many Portuguese books and reviews were available during the last years. Thanks for generous assistance in preparing this survey go especially to Dr. Hernâni Cidade, Dr. Jacinto do Prado Coelho and the Livraria Portugal of Lisbon, as well as to Dr. M. de Paiva Boléo and Dr. A. Gonçalves Rodrigues of Coimbra and Professor G. Le Gentil of Paris.

Portuguese literature. Several other Portuguese writers abandoned the old continent for Brazil, among them the poet António Botto and the educator Agostinho da Silva. Botto was reported to have declared ill-humoredly upon landing that he no longer felt like living in a country "where all were made to sing the same tune, like canaries." Might he have referred to the formation by the Portuguese government of a "Sindicato Nacional dos Escritores" in 1947? Two Brazilian writers temporarily made Portugal their home: Ribeiro Couto, as ambassador of Brazil, and Plínio Salgado, as a political refugee. Both participated in the literary life of Portugal.

Other events receiving some attention during the period were: the centenary of J. P. Oliveira Martins, brilliant historian and critic of civilization on the Iberian peninsula; the bicentenary of Luiz Verney's *Verdadeiro método de estudar*, an anti-scholastic program of school reform; the quadricentennial of Cervantes, whose bonds with and many kind words for Portugal were remembered; the death (1944) of Eugénio de Castro, probably the last of the symbolists and known abroad since 1893 when Rubén Darío designated him one of the *raros* of the age; the passing of Afonso Lopes Vieira, well known in Portugal for his sweet, melancholy verses and for his Portuguese versions of the *Diana* and *Amadís* novels;<sup>2</sup> the discovery of Guinea in the fifteenth century; the recapture of Lisbon from the Moors in 1147.

Portuguese periodicals recently inaugurated include: *Terra de Vera-Cruz* ("Revista luso-brasileira e boletim do grupo de estudos brasileiros do Pôrto," Oporto, 1946); *Humanitas* (annual publication of the "Instituto de Estudos Clássicos," Coimbra, 1947); *Revista Portuguesa de História* (publication of the "Instituto de Estudos Históricos," directed by António de Vasconcelos, Coimbra, 1946?); *Revista Portuguesa de Filologia* (bi-annual review directed by Manuel de Paiva Boléo, Coimbra, 1947); and *Prometeu* (bi-monthly, illustrated "revista de cultura," Oporto, 1947). The literary review *Presença* ceased publication in 1945 or 1946 because of the dispersal of the group of writers behind it. A splendid new enterprise, *Litoral*, lasted only six issues.

On December 8, 1945, Brazil and Portugal decreed an orthographic reform. An outcry went up in Brazil, the complaint being that the reform wiped out the simplifications then accepted in Rio and that spelling had been tampered with six times since 1930. The reform was, it seems, unanimously welcomed in Portugal, where the *Revista de Portugal* defended it as "the greatest victory of the last fifty years for the prestige and diffusion of the Portuguese language in the world."

<sup>2</sup> His lines express the continuity of a lyric tradition of which Portugal is proud: "*Cumpramos até o fim o destino português, o rouxinol que há em mim/georgeando o 'Era uma vez. . .'*" "To the end we must obey/our destiny as Portuguese,/the nightingale within me trills/its 'Once upon a time there was. . .'"

POETRY continues to flourish in the country where every school child knows the verses of Camões. Each year new studies and editions of his poetry appear. In 1945, Manuel Rodrigues Lapa, an authority on the origins of Portuguese poetry, published a second, corrected and augmented edition of his handy little school anthology of Camões' lyrics (*Líricas*, Lisbon). In 1946, Hernâni Cidade, of the University of Lisbon, began to edit a popularly priced, annotated edition of Camões' complete works in five volumes (Lisbon, volumes I–IV, 1946–1947).

Within a wider framework, the same Hernâni Cidade traced the changes of Portuguese and Brazilian poetics as they reflect the evolution of ideas in both countries (*O conceito de poesia como expressão da cultura, sua evolução através das literaturas portuguesa e brasileira*, "Studium" LI, Coimbra, 1945), but Brazil is treated rather summarily. Chapters seven and eight are of special interest since they deal with subjects very familiar to the author: the concept of poetry during the Age of Enlightenment and the pre-romanticists' concept of poetry.

In contrast to preceding years, little attention was paid to the romanticists and their precursors. Only Bocage was reedited—as a classic! Among the later nineteenth century poets, Antero de Quental and Guerra Junqueiro received critical attention. Four quasi-contemporary poets have been edited and studied: António Nobre, Fernando Pessoa, Mário de Sá-Carneiro and Florbela Espanca ("Soror Saúde"), the latter being the object of a surprising amount of attention. Her *Sonetos completos* (Coimbra, 1946, with a preface by José Régio) is in its seventh edition.

Among the living poets, António Botto published works for children (*Aventuras de Bilau*, Lisbon, 1945) and others for their elders (*O meu amor pequenino*, Lisbon; *Ele que diga se eu minto*, Lisbon, 1946). He is also well liked as a story-teller; some of his poetic and moral tales have already found their place in school anthologies. Religious poetry was written by José Régio (*Mas Deus é grande*, Lisbon, 1945), Duarte de Montalegre (*Cântico*, Lisbon, 1946) and Miguel Trigueiros (*Diálogo do céu e da terra*, *Livro do amor*, Lisbon, 1946). Miguel Torga, important as a poet and as a prose writer, published *Odes* (Coimbra, 1946) besides a poem dedicated to F. García Lorca (to be found in Eugénio de Andrade's *Antologia poética de Federico García Lorca*, Coimbra, 1946), a revised edition of his "New Upland Tales" (*Novos contos da montanha*, Lisbon, 1945) and the third volume of his diary (Coimbra, 1946). The powerful, social-minded Afonso Duarte broke a silence of eighteen years with *Ossadas* (Lisbon, 1947).

Three anthologies appeared which might be of use: Cabral do Nascimento, ed., *Líricas portuguesas, Segunda série*, "Antologias Universais," Poesia, 3, Lisbon, 1946?, which was advertised as an anthology of "308 poems by the 50 most representative poets of the last 50 years." Guilherme Faria, ed., *Antologia de poesias religiosas, Desde o século XV, que abre com a*

*Oração de Justo Juiz, de El-Rei D. Duarte, até aos nossos tempos, incluindo romances e cantigas da tradição popular*, Lisbon, 1947. Oscar Lopes, ed., *Realistas e parnasianos, Antologia de poetas*, Lisbon, 1946.

PORTUGUESE PROSE FICTION of the past cannot compare with the rich tradition of Portuguese poetry. But the modern flowering of prose writing has created interest in the tales of yesteryear. In 1945 the centenary of Almeida Garrett's *Viagens na minha terra* was commemorated critically by Vitorino Nemésio and other writers. Among the living novelists, Alves Redol has published new works in which he remains very close to the laboring classes (*Anúncio*, a story, second edition, Lisbon, 1945; *Pôrto Manso*, Lisbon, 1946; *Gaibéus*, popular edition of a novel first published in 1938, Lisbon, 1947). Augusto da Costa added *Aldeia nova* (Lisbon, 1947) to his series of successful tales, one of which, *As inocentes* (1941) went into its fourth edition in 1947 and was translated into Spanish. Adolfo Casais Monteiro found time for a new novel in spite of his activity as a critic and editor (*Adolescentes*, Oporto, 1945). The first prize of Colonial Literature for 1945 went to Eduardo Correia de Matos for his *Terra conquistada* (Lisbon, 1946). Colonial fiction also came from the pen of Casto Soromenho, whom Prado Coelho considers "perhaps the best colonial story-teller in Portugal" (*Calenga*, stories, Lisbon, 1945; *Homers sem caminho*, a novel, second edition, Lisbon, 1946). Ferreira de Castro continues to produce but fails to obtain the success accorded his earlier novel on emigrants to Brazil (*A lã e a neve*, Lisbon, 1947). On the other hand, Joaquim Paço d'Arcos, the Lisbonese gentleman-adventurer, has found a widening public for his contemporary tales about anguished people (*Ana Paula, Perfil duma lisboeta*, seventh edition, Lisbon, 1945; *O caminho da culpa*, Lisbon, 1945; *Tons verdes em fundo escuro*, Lisbon, 1946; second edition, Lisbon, 1947). Many new books have been written by two established writers, Aquilino Ribeiro (*O livro do menino de Deus*, Christmas book, Lisbon, 1945; *O Malhadinhas*, original edition illustrated by Bernardo Marques, Lisbon, 1946, in reality a separate edition of his best-known tale from *Estrada de Santiago*; *Caminhos errados*, tales, Lisbon, 1947; *O arcanjo negro*, Lisbon, 1947) and João Gaspar Simões (*Internato*, Oporto, 1946; *Pantano*, second edition, Lisbon, 1947; *A arte de escrever romances*, a lecture, Lisbon, 1947).

Furthermore, Portuguese critics pointed out the importance of prose fiction coming from the novelists Fernando Namora (*Casa da Malta*, Coimbra, 1945, a tale; *Minas de S. Francisco*, Coimbra, 1946 a novel) and Domingos Monteiro (*O caminho para lá*, a novel, and *O mal e o bem*, tales).

The short story, in vogue all over the Western world, has attained considerable popularity in Portugal. The market is flooded with anthologies of foreign as well as Portuguese origin—a testimony to the cosmopolitan taste and curiosity of the educated Portuguese. The "earthy" tale is cultivated a



great deal but not always with the skill of an Aquilino Ribeiro. Unlike many regional tales and novels, the tales of José Régio (*Uma gota de sangue*, Lisbon, 1945; *Histórias de mulheres*, Oporto, 1946; *As raízes do futuro*, Oporto, 1947) and of the expatriated José Rodrigues Miguéis (*Onde a noite se acaba*, Rio, 1946) have a universal appeal.

The following anthologies will give an idea of the growth of the genre: Guilherme Castilho, ed., *Os melhores contos portugueses, Segunda série*, "Antologias Universais," Conto, 5, second edition, Lisbon, 1946, containing tales by contemporary authors. *Contos e novelas*, "Prosadores Portugueses Contemporâneos," Coimbra, 1946. Armando Ferreira, ed., *Os mais alegres contos portugueses, Primeira série*, "Antologia de Humoristas," Lisbon, 1945; and *Novos contos alegres portugueses, Segunda série*, "Antologia de Humoristas," Lisbon, 1947. Rumos, *Antologia de contos e poemas*, Lisbon, 1946.

THE PORTUGUESE THEATER has languished since the sixteenth century, but occasionally a noteworthy play is produced. Recent productions reveal the traditional lyric, religious and satiric vein in such sub-titles as "phantasy," "caprice," "mystery," "dramatic poem."

Júlio Dantas, dean of living playwrights, continues to publish in spite of his age and official duties as president of the Portuguese Academy of Letters. His *Frei Antônio das Chagas* (Oporto, 1947) was apparently well received. It is a religious play about a Portuguese who figured in eighteenth century literature, and it relates his conversion from Captain Bonina, a brutal dragoon, into Brother Antonio, a mystic. New plays were written by Alfredo Cortez (*Báton*, 1945?), Miguel Torga (*Sinfonia*, Coimbra, 1947; *Terra firme*, second, revised edition, Coimbra, 1947) and José Régio, whose *Benilde, a virgem-mãe* (Oporto, 1947) was much discussed. It has been always difficult to obtain information about Ramada Curto, but it appears that this well liked playwright published several dramas in recent years, according to a communication from Sr. Campos Ferreira Lima. Their titles were *A cadeira da verdade*; *Do diário de José Maria* (a play?); *Madame Solange, vidente*; and *Preto no branco*.

Like other domains, the theater has become a battleground, where materialists and idealists clash violently. According to reports, the debate was resumed on the stage by Fernando Amado, a monarchist and idealist. His "capricho teatral," *A caixa de Pandora* (Lisbon, 1947), staged in 1946, advocated a return to the poetic symbolism found in ancient Greek tragedy, the *commedia dell'arte* and folk tales.

RELIGIOUS WORKS cannot be overlooked in a survey of Portuguese literature; the writings of priests have figured among the classics of the Portuguese language ever since the times of Vieira, Manuel Bernardes and Luís de Sousa. The Brazilian *integralista* leader, Plínio Salgado, worked on

behalf of Catholicism during his stay in Portugal, giving lectures on religious subjects and writing, among other books, a life of Jesus which was widely read. A Portuguese poet of rank, Teixeira de Pascoais, added comments on St. Augustine to others previously published by him on St. Paul and St. Jerome (*Santo Agostinho, Comentários sobre as suas "Confissões,"* Oporto, 1945). Another poet, Father Moreira das Neves, began in 1946 to compose a life of the present Patriarch of Lisbon (*O Cardeal Cerejeira, Patriarca de Lisboa*, Lisbon).

The six miraculous apparitions of the Virgin Mary to three children from the village of Fatima have stirred the fervor and imagination of Catholics in many lands since 1917. American readers are referred to William Thomas Walsh for a Catholic account in English (*Our Lady of Fatima*, New York, 1947, based on material gathered in 1946 in Portugal). Many narratives written by priests and laymen spread the story of the children, among them one by the popular novelist Antero de Figueiredo (*Fátima, Graças—segredos—mistérios*, fourteenth edition, Lisbon, 1945).

THE ESSAY has flourished in Portugal since Oliveira Martins and other keen critics belonging to the Lisbonese circle of the "Victims of Life" (*Os vencidos da vida*) analysed the ills of their times and their country in the late nineteenth century. The outstanding modern essayist is António Sérgio, who combines the viewpoints of a philosopher, an economist and a pedagogue. He continued publication of his series of essays, unperturbed by a hostile environment (*Ensaio*, volume 6, Lisbon, 1946, and an anthology, *Prosa doutrinal de autores portugueses, As melhores páginas do pensamento português apresentadas e anotadas, Primeira série, "Antologias Universais,"* Ensaio, 1, Lisbon, 1947). Several other thinkers tackled political and social problems. Some proposed to solve them through a revival of humanism. António José Saraiva criticized the Portuguese university system in *Para a história da cultura em Portugal* (Lisbon, 1946). Augusto Saraiva wrote *Reflexões sobre o homem* (1947) and Rodrigo Soares, *Por um novo humanismo* (1947).

NEW REFERENCE WORKS on Portugal include a collection of monographs issued by the Portuguese government. They are primarily addressed to the Portuguese living abroad. But the volume might well serve others as a handy reference work since many of its contributors are specialists in their fields. The essay on literature was entrusted to José Osório de Oliveira; João Ameal contributed a "Short Summary of Portuguese History"; Damião Peres, "Portugal in the History of Civilization"; Amadeu Cunha, "The Portuguese Empire"; Luís Silveira, "Culture, Language and Books"; Delfim Santos, "Portuguese Philosophical Thought"; and Reinaldo dos

Santos, "Evolution and Cultural Trends in Portuguese Art" (*Portugal*, illustrated, Secretariado Nacional da Informação, Lisbon, 1947). Those interested in the general history of the arts will enjoy the beautiful volume on painting and sculpture published by Fernando de Pamplona (*Um século de pintura e escultura em Portugal*, 1830-1930, illustrated, Oporto, 1944, with an appendix on the arts from 1930 till 1940). A new encyclopedia, started in 1937, has now reached the letter *M* (*Grande enciclopédia portuguesa e brasileira*, volume 16, *Maldo-Mermi*, Lisbon, 1947).

PORTUGUESE-NORTH-AMERICAN LITERARY RELATIONS are growing. North-American literature, which had gained ground already in the northern half of Europe and in Latin America since 1900, made its influence increasingly felt in Portugal. Bearing out a general trend, the American short story is in great favor. Several anthologies have been published. Furthermore, Manuel Barbosa has begun to translate all of E. A. Poe's tales (second volume, Oporto, 1945), and José Tenreiro intends to make Mark Twain's complete works available to Portuguese readers. The latter also published a survey, *Panorâmica da literatura norte-americana*, Lisbon, 1946. Contemporary American authors whose short stories have been translated during recent years include Michael Gold (translated in 1946), Pearl Buck (1946), Ernest Hemingway (1947), Erskine Caldwell (1946) and William Saroyan (1947). Of the novelists, Jack London, eight volumes of whose works had been translated up to 1947, and John Steinbeck (*As vinhas da ira*, 1947) were introduced in Portugal. In the field of poetry, Whitman alone aroused interest; his "Song of the Open Road" was translated by Luís Cardim as *Canção da estrada larga* (Lisbon, 1947). Another of his translators, Agostinho da Silva, an indefatigable popularizer of world culture, also wrote a life of Penn (*Vida de William Penn*, Lisbon, 1946), having previously published the lives of Franklin, Washington and Lincoln. Finally, the United States, Americans and, among them, Americans of Portuguese ancestry, began to make their appearance in Portuguese fiction—for example, in the stories of Paço d'Arcos and Rodrigues Miguéis.

CONCLUSIONS. Lack of space prohibits the mention of the many interesting items in the fields of travel literature, historiography, letters, general language and literature.<sup>1</sup> The numerous original works of modern historians indicate that the study of the past continues to preoccupy the Portuguese mind. Renaissance studies thrive, and medieval research is revived. Works of a philosophic nature receive considerable attention from the general public, in contrast to a diminished interest in fiction.

<sup>1</sup> For additional information, readers are referred to "Publications on Portuguese Language and Literature in Recent Years," in a forthcoming issue of *Hispania*.

That Portuguese literary enterprise is not lacking is evident in the considerable output of books since 1945. It remains to be seen how universal is their appeal. It may be that they reflect too greatly a desire to explore the humble life of the Portuguese provinces or a nostalgia for the glories of the past. However, Eça de Queiroz and Eugénio de Castro made their mark in world literature only yesterday. Others, too, may yet find their way to a wider public, as the playwright Júlio Dantas, and the novelist Joaquim Paço d'Arcos seem to be doing today.

GERALD MOSER

*University of Illinois*

---

#### NOTICE

The subscription price of the *Modern Language Journal* is now \$3 a year. This price does not include dues for any of the affiliated associations, whose dues are not all alike. Foreign subscriptions are \$3.50. *The Journal* is published 8 times a year, monthly from January through May and from October through December. Single copy, 50 cents. Subscriptions can be secured through the affiliated regional associations or directly from the Business Manager, Mr. Stephen L. Pitcher, 7144 Washington Avenue, St. Louis 5, Missouri.

---

#### NOTICE

Prospective advertisers in the *Modern Language Journal* should write to the Business Manager, Mr. Stephen L. Pitcher, 7144 Washington Avenue, St. Louis 5, Missouri.

---

#### NOTICE

Books for reviewing and exchange publications should be sent to the Managing Editor, Professor Julio del Toro, Department of Romance Languages, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

## *An Experiment with Recording and Playback Machines in Academic Foreign Language Teaching*

**D**URING the course of the Second World War the American Army was suddenly faced with the problem of a serious shortage of men with adequate language training. The Army Special Training Program was hastily constructed to overcome this handicap as rapidly as possible. Most language teachers will agree that it is possible to teach a language quickly and efficiently under the conditions of the ASTP: both rooms and instructors are made available in the desired quantities without too much regard for budget; students are in the program for the specific purpose of learning the language and becoming familiar with the area of the world in which it is spoken; students are generally selected with some care; students are mature; students have certain incentives to make good in their classroom work, not the least of these being the ever-present threat of an immediate return to the ranks.

Our normal high-school, college, and university classes in language offer no such opportunities for concentrated language studies, of course. Time, space, money, student interest, and the schedule of classes are all definitely limited. So language teachers are on the whole quite right in regarding generalized glorifications of the "Army Method" with some suspicion and considerable reserve, and they are certainly right when they insist that the ASTP set-up can hardly be duplicated in the normal educational program.

But we language teachers are perhaps too inclined to stress the obvious advantages the Army program enjoyed. Perhaps we are inclined to dismiss too lightly the techniques developed. At any rate, it would seem worth while for us to explore the possibility of adapting the use of drill sections, of native informants and of sound equipment to the teaching of language *within* the framework of the normal high-school or college limitations.

At this point it would be all too easy to veer off into another abstract and sterile discussion of the objectives of language teaching and of the methods we must use to achieve our theoretical ends. Let us not do so. Let us assume instead that we, at least, are fairly well agreed that languages form an essential part of a liberal education. Let us also dismiss the troublesome and complex problem of content rather casually for once and speak only about one way in which we may be able to improve our techniques in

giving students control over the language itself. Even here we will not be presenting theory. We will limit ourselves to a simple description of one of the several experimental language programs now being carried on at various schools, the experiment we are conducting at Wayne University.—We do not even have any definitive results to offer yet: we have only an experimental pattern to describe.

The Wayne experimental language program is the result of a lot of curiosity on the part of various members of the foreign language staffs with respect to the possible application of sound equipment to language teaching. This curiosity enjoyed the interested support of a sympathetic administration which encouraged us to go ahead and investigate the possibilities of a language laboratory, provided that budget, space and time limitations were clearly kept in mind. To make a potentially long paper short, a request for a number of playback machines and tape recorders both for classroom work and for work with individual students was approved and we went to work designing the specifics of our program. That was in the summer and fall of 1947. Due partly to the usual difficulties in getting construction work done nowadays, partly to some very unusual difficulties in obtaining a suitable location for our laboratory classroom and partly to the fact that the instructors involved were all teaching regular full-time programs, our laboratory experiment did not actually get into full classroom operation until February, 1948.

Laboratory work is being done in a number of modern languages at Wayne: two first-semester classes in French, two in German, two in Spanish, one each in Italian, Polish and Russian are included in our program. An elected committee of seven assorted language teachers plus the inevitable—and indispensable—department heads meet frequently to discuss problems common to all the languages concerned: the physical plant, schedules, controlling results, laboratory techniques at Wayne and elsewhere, the uses of sound equipment and general policies as well are considered by the committee at great length.

There are a total of nine first-semester sections in our experiment. Beginning in September, 1948, these classes will be taught the first two semesters, or eight hours, of their language group requirement of twelve hours in the experimental program described below. At Wayne University regular language classes meet four times a week for four hours credit. In the experimental sections students meet with their regular instructors three days a week; they then meet twice a week in a lab class which is under the direction of a native informant. Credit hours remain four. Regular classes in these inflationary days have between 25–35 students; laboratory sections have between 10–17, since each class is split in half for this instruction. If a little arithmetic is now applied, it can easily be determined that we are running 36 laboratory sections.



The division into three regular class hours and two lab sections may seem arbitrary, but it is easily explained in terms of time and money. Much as we might like to spend more time—and money—in laboratory instruction we have limited space and a limited budget; the division into three and two seemed the logical and reasonable compromise. But this ratio has additional significance. Few schools have the slightest chance to get either the personnel or the equipment to operate a more expanded program, except perhaps the English language institutes. Our program seems to be approximately the maximum that most language departments could hope to obtain, and at the same time perhaps the minimum in which laboratory techniques can prove effective. It is a program specifically designed to fit into the normal educational framework and has significance largely as such.

Our laboratory is at present located in a temporary building on the Wayne campus. It consists of two classrooms, an office for the use of informants and for storage, a cutting room where we commit to records our laboriously prepared material, and four cubicles for individual work with students.

Our larger classroom which seats 20 students is equipped with a Peirce wire recorder and a record player. The wire recorder has four strategically placed microphones connected with it which will pick up conversation in any part of the room clearly and efficiently. The Peirce recorder is simple in operation, requiring but one switch to change from one position to another. It is apparently able to absorb considerable abuse. The wire spool holds over sixty minutes of recording. The machine has a 2-1 rewind ratio, which is slow but which guards effectively against wire breakage. A timer synchronized with the wire allows the instructor to rewind for playbacks quite accurately to the point at which the recording was started. The Peirce recorder replaces a Sound Mirror, which we found to be too complicated for classroom use.

In addition to the wire recorder the classroom contains a Klarity Sound System record player connected with an amplifier which feeds records at either 78 or 33 $\frac{1}{3}$  RPM into 20 individual headsets. All equipment is run from a control table at the front center of the room. Student positions are arranged in units of four to a 10'  $\times$  18" table. Tables are set at a slight angle to each other in two rows of two tables each with a fifth table directly in front of the control table. The instructor has direct access to each student position. The laboratory is not soundproofed except for carpeting.

Our second classroom is much smaller. It seats ten students and the instructor at a 10'  $\times$  36" table. It is used for some advanced courses in diction and conversation. Sound equipment is brought into the room as the instructor needs it.

The record-cutting room contains a Presto record cutter and the necessary blanks and needles required to operate it. The records made here are on

the whole quite satisfactory, although the absence of sound-proofing does allow the introduction of outside noises at times. The mechanical aspects of cutting records—proper control of volume, pitch and cutting depth—at first cause a little difficulty, but practice soon brings familiarity with the machine and the techniques involved. If Presto red shank needles are used in combination with a light weight pick-up arm, the records can be replayed satisfactorily perhaps fifty times.

Before turning from our brief description of the physical plant to its use in language teaching, it should perhaps be clearly stated that none of the language departments concerned is interested in gadgets or machinery as such, but in the question of how, when and where sound equipment can help us do a better job in language instruction. Nothing is farther from our thoughts than the mechanization of foreign language teaching.

The students in the lab sections, as indicated, are with their regular instructors three hours a week and in the lab twice a week. In addition they can supplement their lab work with individual work in the cubicles at designated times during the week. The lab classes are thus conceived of primarily as drill sections which may serve to develop aural-oral skills and help to strengthen the material presented in the regular class hours through repetition and variation.

If we listen in on a sample class hour in the language laboratory, we may hear the following. A recording prepared and cut by us is played to the students who have, of course, donned their earphones. The first section the students hear may be a minute or two of vocabulary drill: they repeat each word or phrase as they hear it, during the blank space provided on the record. The informant limits himself to correcting pronunciation at this stage.

The second section of the record is usually based on the grammatical principle in the lesson which is being studied in the regular class hour. It seeks to define the basic pattern involved in the lesson and to develop, expand and vary that pattern. Sentences are developed in echelon, with students repeating each phrase or sentence, usually in chorus, as before. This section is subdivided further so that the informant can work directly and individually with the students at convenient intervals. Some quick translations, either by the students or by the informant, may come in as a check on whether students know what they are talking about, but the informant ordinarily only repeats and varies the material which the record has set. If necessary, parts of the record are played a second time. As soon as the class generally seems to have mastered the pattern, the informant may turn to questions designed to elicit answers involving the pattern, or to other conversational routines, more rarely to dictation or general conversation. The informant is under strict orders not to teach formal grammar: he is essentially a drillmaster.

The use of the recordings seems to have value 1) to set the patterns to which we wish to expose the students without the possibility of the informant taking side-paths, 2) to relieve the informant in part of the physical and mental strain which is a part of the constant repetition and variation basic to language drill, 3) to cut the student off from interference from other students and so force individual concentration, and 4) to bring the student into contact with a variety of voices, both singly and in dialogue combinations.

The wire recorder is used comparatively little in the classroom because it is obviously wasteful of class time to make a recording, rewind it and play it back. It is useful in teaching pronunciation and pitch patterns, of course, and is used at the beginning of the semester for corrective work of this sort. It may be used sparingly to stimulate student interest—for students enjoy hearing their own and each others' voices—and to vary the somewhat monotonous drill work. It also serves as a morale builder by giving the student a measure of confidence in his progress if it is used briefly at the beginning and again at the end of a lab session.

In our program most oral training has been shifted to the lab meetings in most languages. The regular instructor uses his three hours for the presentation of grammatical materials and the drill exercises in his text. If a separate reader is used, he may also spend time on that. When students go to a lab class, they have already been introduced to the material they drill orally. The informant makes no additional assignments: the substitution of two lab hours for *one* class hour, we hope, is sufficient compensation.

The material on the records at present largely follows the regular class text to the extent that little vocabulary is employed which does not occur in the text and that the grammatical patterns are taken up in the same order. The drill routines are, however, kept as fresh and original as possible, so that monotony does not rear its dull head too frequently. In view of the type of material which is generally offered to a supposedly mature student body as well as the difficulty of adapting it to oral work, many disturbing problems arise from following the regular text closely; they will probably be solved only when we have developed our own laboratory manuals, specifically designed for the type of program here described. We have made a beginning to the extent that students are given copies of all the material they hear on the records. Sometimes they use these copies in the laboratory; more commonly, they use them as convenient summaries of the work done there and for home review.

Considerable variation in the techniques used exists among the various language departments. Thus in one language almost no chorus repetition may be employed and some new material may be introduced in the course of a lab class. Similarly, the manuals of a department which emphasizes a reading objective will stress syntactical and inflectional patterns quite differently from those of a department which places the prime emphasis

on an oral-aural approach even in its non-laboratory classes. To what extent the methods developed in the laboratory by all departments will influence and modify objectives remains to be seen. Certainly an open-minded attitude toward the possibilities promises to be one of the most heartening by-products of the experiment.

Early in our program we discovered that the careful selection of informants is highly important. The informants are not trained or experienced teachers; if they were, our program would be financially impossible. They are students or other native speakers of the language being taught and they work under the direction of the department and the regular instructors of the experimental sections. They must be alert, intelligent and enthusiastic enough to keep the drills working smoothly and rapidly. At the same time they must be willing to restrain their personal inclinations, idiosyncrasies and initiative and limit themselves to following the routines given them. The sophisticated informant finds this difficult to do. He is unable to recognize the problems the American students face in acquiring the foreign language which he himself speaks so fluently; he is apt to miss the specific point at which the drill work is directed; he is all too ready to conclude that the students have mastered the material assigned long before they have even become familiar with it. If the informant is to be expected to fulfill his function as a drillmaster, he must be given repeated demonstrations on how he is to do his assignments. It is also highly advisable, at least at first, for regular staff members to visit laboratory sections frequently. Obviously close cooperation between the regular instructor and the informant is required.

According to the results of an unsigned poll of lab classes, student reaction is very favorable on the whole, although little was done in the way of preparing students through an adequate publicity program. In the fall we hope to correct this sin of omission. We find that students are both curious and intrigued by the idea of laboratory language work, but that this original interest does not hold up after the first two or three weeks unless the material offered and the informant's own interest support it. Obviously the program does try to meet the current and healthy student demand for more oral work and some conversational control of the language being studied. But students are inclined to be rather critical, as we know, and in the long run our program will stand or fall on its real and permanent contribution to the acquisition of the foreign language.

Our program goes into full operation in the fall of 1948. At that time we intend to employ a design of aptitude and achievement tests as far as feasible in order to have an objective criterion of the value of our laboratory work. Testing done by the language departments will include standard forms covering reading, vocabulary and grammar; these tests will be given at the end of the second and eighth weeks of the first semester as

well as at the end of the first, second and third semesters. High school and cumulative records of students will also be consulted, and some tests of primary mental abilities and temperament will probably be added in order to get as complete as possible a picture. Students taking part in the experimental program and also students taking their languages in the regular courses will be subjected to such a battery of tests. We have also already experimented with several oral-aural tests and will of course have to include such tests in our program.

By the time that we have concluded our experimental program at Wayne University, we hope to have considerable evidence about the value of a limited laboratory approach to language teaching. This evidence, we trust, will give at least a partial answer to the question of the feasibility, within modest terms of money, time and personnel, of adapting the laboratory techniques of drill sections, the use of native informants and of sound equipment to the needs of academic language instruction. Lastly, whatever conclusions are reached, they will not be based on theoretical disputations, but on concrete and objective data.

*Wayne University*

JOHN F. EBELKE\*

\*Prepared for the Foreign Language Laboratory Committee, the College of Liberal Arts, Wayne University. Members of the Committee are H. Josselson, Chairman, C. O. Colditz, G. P. Borglum, D. L. Pucci, H. N. Bershas, P. Didier, J. F. Ebelke, H. L. Edsall, M. Ordon, G. B. Ray.

## *Evaluation in Foreign Language Teaching*

MY DISCUSSION does not give a complete survey of the instruments and devices of evaluation in the foreign language classroom. Rather I shall deal with those which do not yet exist or exist only in an imperfect way. Hence, this is a criticism of the present status and a proposal for improvements.

The teacher of foreign languages seems to be fairly well off for technical and standard instruments of evaluation. He has several commercial tests on reading, vocabulary, and grammar. Furthermore, a number of tests on audition have been evolved, and there is at least one each on those difficult types of measurement, the ability to compose in the foreign language and to speak it. This state of beatitude is, however, more apparent than real when closely inspected.

I propose to take up first the measurement of skills and show that we need to rework old ground more carefully. Then I shall go on to point out some unexplored territory which has come to my attention.

To take first the testing of reading ability, we have as good examples the American Council Tests and the Cooperative Test Service. These tests are based on word counts and other scientific apparatus, which would seem to guarantee a true measure of reading ability within the standard literary or pre-literary course in a foreign language. Of the two the Cooperative Tests seem to be the better if only because of the greater number of questions the student can answer. Even here, however, the value of the tests seems to run out after the first two years of college study, for students in the upper ranges of achievement all come close to perfection, and there is no way of differentiating between the better students and the best. No doubt, in a small class of third year students other measures will suffice to distinguish among the members of the class, but there can be no reliance on these tests. In addition, the reliability of one form of the tests compared with another is not quite as high as one would expect. So much so that the same class taking one form two months after taking another form will score lower in spite of having learned more in class work. This has happened to my classes so often that I have to be careful in my choice of forms to use for measuring improvement, or I shall find no gain where such has really taken place. Again, the forms in Latin employ the true-false type of answer instead of the multiple choice and in general put more emphasis on the student's ability to take tests intelligently.

In grammar the Cooperative Tests are not definitely tests of reading



grammar or of speaking and writing grammar. They demand a choice of form rather than an interpretation, if passive grammar is being aimed at, and they do not demand the construction of a form, if active grammar is aimed at. Moreover, neither grammar nor vocabulary testing in the Co-operative Service gives any diagnostic interpretation unless closely analyzed, since they are not constructed in a form suitable for breakdown into separate elements. What is more, there is a difference in general meaning between weakness in vocabulary and weakness in grammar as measured by these tests. A competence in vocabulary is a *sine qua non* for reading, but is not a guarantee of reading ability; a weakness in a grammar test of this kind is no proof that weak reading ability will be shown on this same test. The fact is that students in Latin, for example, may show very poor results in grammar testing and very high performance in a reading test. One specific conclusion from all this is that reading is an art over and above control of separate elements like grammar and vocabulary. Since the office of the Co-operative Test Service likes to receive reports of the total scores of the three different abilities taken together, it follows that the meaning of these tests is not well understood even by those who publish them. *We have here a beautiful example of the objective measurement of we-know-not-what!*

At the present time, then, the teacher who wishes to diagnose grammatical ailments in reading must construct his own tests, and he who wishes to test for grammar in active use will probably have to do the same, for the American Council Tests, while calling for the construction of a form, offer few examples from which to draw a conclusion.

In our measurement of the ability to comprehend spoken French, German, etc., we are beginning to make progress, having the Tharp-Lundberg tests and the newer devices of the Chicago Investigation of the Learning of a Second Language. So too with oral ability, as tested by Walter Kaulfers. It is a question whether the instruments developed by the Chicago Study and Kaulfers will take adequate account of those courses which try to build up conversational ability and auditory comprehension in everyday communication rather than in literary and pre-literary discussion. The scientific basis for this testing involves the construction of a list of frequently occurring spoken words rather than printed ones. *Any attempts prior to such a step must rely on that dubious faculty known as sound pedagogical judgment.*

Some of us who served in the armed forces during the war encountered the motto: "What is not inspected is not respected." The immediate import seemed to be that any project which was not superintended and criticized in some way was likely to be done poorly. But a little reflection would show that this sententia was a blade cutting two ways, for it could be taken as certain that any officer who gave an order and failed to follow through with a check-up did not really assign any importance to the thing ordered.

We teachers of foreign languages are on record, if the Classical Investigation, the book of Cole and Tharp, and countless other publications are to be believed, as favoring a wide variety of objectives for our students. Are we in earnest? I am afraid that some of our pronouncements are so much eyewash, as far as professional educationists are concerned, if we do not live up to our pretensions.

Before we investigate some of the failures of which we are guilty, let us analyze the relation of objectives to evaluation. The logical sequence is somewhat as follows: (1) an objective is set up; (2) part of the activity is concerned with achieving the objective; (3) part of the grade for the course is assigned to performance of the activity, either as a measure of improvement or as a measure of final standing. For instance, the teacher may set up as an objective for a course the acquisition by the students of certain attitudes and may introduce into the course certain exercises which purport to induce these attitudes. It may be his best judgment that this gain should not form part of the student's grade for the course. Should he evaluate at all in that case?

In order to answer this question, we must decide what functions evaluation is to have. The first is that of deciding the grade for the course, upon which in turn depends information to the student in raw form of his progress and prospects. Other functions are those of furnishing a critique of the course in showing the effectiveness of the teacher, of giving hints for self-improvement to both teacher and student, and of offering educational guidance. No doubt there are more, but these are already justification enough for a full program of evaluation.

If we accept these functions for evaluation, it follows, in my opinion, that every objective accepted by the teacher should not only be aimed at by appropriate activities in the classroom but should be surveyed by some sort of evaluation to determine the success of the students in achieving the objective and the success of the teacher in helping them to do so. Even when a teacher decides that it is not necessary to weigh achievement in some areas in determining a grade, he may be concerned to know how far he is getting in pulling his class toward the objective. It is often a consequence of evaluation that a study of results refines and improves techniques of teaching for the objective.

Two fields of interest to foreign language teachers which ought to be evaluated are the growth of student acquaintance with the culture of the countries whose language is being studied and the growth of international understanding. For the former there are available questionnaires on the cultures of various countries or where not available they can easily be home-made on the basis of existing models, such as those of the Kansas State Teachers College. The fault here, I suspect, is not the lack of these tests but their relative disregard by teachers.

An area of great importance to some teachers is the growth of international tolerance, sympathy and understanding in the student. The discovery of a reliable check on attitudes is admittedly very difficult, but a start is being made in some quarters. Some years ago a questionnaire was used among secondary students consisting of general statements such as: "A man's first loyalty is to humanity rather than to his country," and students were asked to express approval, disapproval, or indecision. A check-back was then made in slightly different wording to ascertain inconsistencies in student thinking. The result of this check-up in my own classes has shown immense confusion in the minds of students and has served as a basis for further clarifying discussion rather than satisfactory evaluation. Hence it is necessary to hunt for better instruments. One promising device is that of Professor Harding of Ohio State, who has devised a check called the *problemmaire*. It consists of an anecdote based on a conflict in values followed by a series of statements to be endorsed or rejected by the student. This form gives somewhat more chance to think in concrete terms than does the blanket statement, which calls for a more direct and emotional reaction.

Since, however, these instruments are based on teacher values and offer little chance for the student to bring his own initiative to bear, we must also consider the possibilities of the sociodrama. Inasmuch as many of us use little impromptu dramas in our oral work, may we not force the procedure to do double duty by setting the topic of the drama to be improvised in some field of conflict where it is probable that student attitudes will emerge? Such a type of evaluation is very informal and cannot be tabulated as can a paper-and-pencil test, but it may be more spontaneous and genuine. Growth can be traced, if there is growth, by assigning the same conflict in a somewhat disguised form after an appropriate interval.

In conclusion, it is not too much to hope that the extremely difficult tasks in evaluation which lie before us will one day be solved in view of the progress achieved in areas which I for one did not believe susceptible of evaluation in any way except crude guesswork.

VICTOR COUTANT

*Central Michigan College of Education*

## *Second Year Russian*

THE teaching of second-year Russian in college is still a fairly new undertaking. Though most schools which have introduced Russian during or after the war offer at least two years of the language, few traditions have as yet been established and no definite goal for a second-year course has been set. There are few precedents, few textbooks and readers, and every instructor tries in his own way to overcome the many difficulties which besiege him and his students.

Perhaps a summary of these difficulties and a few remarks on how one person has tried to overcome them, may clarify some of the problems.

That second-year Russian—just like second-year French, German, or Spanish,—is difficult to teach, no one will deny who has tried it. It seems to me that there are three main reasons why a second-year course offers so many more problems than the first year.

First of all, the students who enter the second-year class lack in most cases a definite amount of common knowledge which can be used as a starting point for further instruction, except in the rare case when the entire class had the same instructor in the first year. No word-frequency list has yet been published for Russian, and therefore there is not even a certain stock of basic words which all students can be expected to know. Many different methods are used in first-year teaching, and the result is that some students may have a rather sound knowledge of the basic grammar, while they are very weak in oral understanding and expression; others can sing Russian songs, have acted in Russian plays, perhaps know a lot about the culture of Russia and about the peculiarities of the Russian soul, but are unable to recognize an inflected noun or an irregular verb; others again have done extensive reading, can recognize a fair number of words, but are also weak in grammar and in exact knowledge. And so, whatever the teacher's approach may be, he is apt to bore some students by repeating what they already know, and to be too difficult for others.

A second difficulty—and one that is perhaps more typical for Russian than for other languages—is to decide what material should be covered in the second year. In French, German or Spanish it is customary to prepare the students to be able to read the literature of the country. While in a Russian class some students also want primarily to acquire enough knowledge to read the Russian classics in the original language, generally a greater number is more interested in acquiring a working knowledge of the language in order to find work as translators, or to read articles and books

in their field of interest, in science, history or economics. It is a difficult if not impossible task for the instructor to find reading material that will satisfy all students.

The third and last difficulty is common to all second-year language courses, though maybe in a higher degree in Russian. It is a well-known fact that students are apt to become discouraged in the second year when they suddenly realize how little they know and how much there is still to be learned. A student who has been well taught during the first year is often quite pleased with his progress at the end of the year. Because of the lack of article, the omission of the verb "to be" in the present tense, the relative simplicity of the verb and of sentence construction, he was able to say a few things in Russian from the very beginning. Gradually his vocabulary became richer, and during the second semester he was able to converse with his classmates in understandable, though not always grammatically correct Russian. If he has read the excellent and easy readers of the Heath series, he has become convinced that Russian is not such a difficult language after all and perhaps even easier than first-year German. But then comes the dreadful moment, which everyone who starts to use a foreign language experiences, when he tries to say not only what he knows, but what he wants to say. Or, encouraged by his facility in understanding the Heath readers, he picks up a Russian book or newspaper, tries to follow the conversation in a Russian movie or to talk with some Russian friends. Suddenly he realizes how limited his knowledge, and how rich the Russian language is. The amount still to be learned seems infinite and it is hard for the instructor to keep up the necessary enthusiasm of the students.

These, then, are some of the problems the teacher of second-year Russian has to face. I do not believe that a complete solution of the difficulties can be found. In the following remarks I shall only show how I personally have tried to find at least a partial solution to some of the problems.

Before starting the year one has, of course, to decide what the subject-matter and the aims of the class should be. The majority of the students in my class wanted to acquire a good reading knowledge of the language; the ability to speak Russian was a desirable but secondary aim. It is easy to convince the students—if necessary by giving them some examples of more difficult, involved sentences—that a sound knowledge of the basic grammar is absolutely necessary if one wants to read either literature or learned articles. During the long summer vacation all but the exceptional students will have forgotten much of what they knew before. Those teachers who become easily irritated when they realize how much grammar can be forgotten in a few months time, should perhaps try learning a new foreign language themselves. The gains in sympathy for and understanding of the student's difficulties are well worth the effort. Perhaps then they will also become convinced of the continued necessity for drill and grammar exer-



cises in a second-year language course. My students actually preferred a review grammar with exercises to a reference grammar. Birkett's *A Modern Russian Course* proved to be an excellent textbook for the second year. For beginners it is too complete and difficult, but it is extremely clear and well organized, and the ample exercises use practical, everyday vocabulary. The better student, who has not forgotten his grammar, will still find enough new vocabulary to be learned to profit from the book.

In learning vocabulary it seems very important to me always to point out clearly to the student which words he is expected to know actively and which passively. Most of the active vocabulary should have been learned during the first year. In the second year these words should be kept alive by constant use and only a few words and expressions need be added. Though speaking Russian is not the primary aim of a second-year course, I believe that simple conversation, made possible by the active knowledge of a limited number of words, is of the greatest importance for rapid reading. The Russian exercises in Birkett—rather boring to use as translation material, since they are composed of unconnected sentences—lend themselves very well to a regular ten or fifteen minutes of conversation. Most of the sentences can be read directly to the student, who either answers, if it is a question, or comments on the statement. Or, when the students have acquired more facility in speaking, one can ask for a description of the situation in which the particular sentence would be used, for instance, in the case of a sentence like "I cannot believe that he is simply joking." If the student has some imagination, this conversation can often become quite amusing.

Since writing in a foreign language is one of the most difficult skills to acquire and since only an extremely small proportion of the students will ever use the language for writing, the teacher should, it seems to me, not demand perfection in the active knowledge of grammar. We should of course require a firm knowledge of all basic regular forms, but even a weak student can learn these in a few weeks' time. For the rest, only a passive knowledge is necessary. The student should be able, for instance, to recognize the inflected forms of the numerals, or the irregular forms of the less frequent verbs, but he should not be expected always to use them correctly.

Grammar review should, however, only be part of the subject-matter of a second-year class. The main object is, as I said before, the ability to read Russian texts relatively fluently, and therefore the students should of course read as much as possible and learn vocabulary. But the difficulty is to find the proper material to read. The difference in vocabulary between a classical literary text and a contemporary newspaper article is enormous. In most cases the interests of the students are varied. The solution seems to be, to read as many different kinds of texts as possible. Unluckily the choice of interesting second-year readers is still rather small. The best I could find



for my classes at Bryn Mawr and Haverford was, first, Lermontov's *Bela*, the third book in the Heath Series. This was perhaps too easy and could well be read at the end of the first year. Then we read Fastenberg's *Everybody's Russian Reader*. To my amazement this proved to be quite difficult, notwithstanding the often too-extensive vocabulary-lists on each page. The selections are also too short to keep up the interest of the students. In the second semester we read some articles from Russian magazines and newspapers. Though this was not easy either, the students were keenly interested in the material, especially when we happened to read a long editorial in the *Izvestia* commenting on a speech by Mr. Truman. We finished by reading part of an average Soviet novel, *Spulniki* by Panova. I choose it because it was written in rather clear and simple language, but it would have been too difficult for the students if I had not prepared lists of the less frequently-used words and expressions. The story about the personnel of a Russian hospital-train during the last war is interesting, and the students tried to read as much as possible.

However, when more or less adequate reading material has been found, the question of how to use it is still with us. Except in the case of a very easy reader, it seems to me that a literal translation of prepared or new material in class still gives the best results. Only then will the student be forced to pay attention to each grammatical detail and to understand the construction of the sentence thoroughly. And it seems the best way to prepare him for more rapid reading on his own. As for the vocabulary, I do not require the students to learn all the words. Since no frequency-list has been published yet, the instructor has to use his own judgment. The less common words are omitted; a small amount of the others has to be learned as active vocabulary, the rest for recognition only. From time to time I give the students translation tests, made up from the words they are supposed to know.

Besides the slow and precise translation in class, the student should be required to do some rapid reading at home. But here we are confronted with the greatest difficulty of all. There just are no interesting and fairly easy books one can recommend to the students. While in French, German and Spanish a great number of novels and stories have been edited for student use, with notes and vocabulary, hardly any are as yet available in Russian. When the student has to look up too many words in the dictionary his progress is too slow; he loses interest in the story and becomes easily discouraged.

I mentioned the fact that the second-year student becomes easily discouraged as the third difficulty which confronts the teacher of Russian. It is true that the rapid progress the student made in the first year slows down considerably during the second year. But the Russian language has several peculiarities which can at least partially offset the handicap of the

small number of cognates and the lack of easy reading material. Russian is a root-language and the student should learn to recognize a fair number of roots. One should show him over and over again how he can guess the meaning of new words if he knows the root and the meaning of the prefix or suffix. Sight-reading in class is a good method of teaching him where and how to guess. If the student knows other foreign languages, one should continually point out any similarities of roots, of meaning and construction.

Speaking Russian in class also helps to give the student a pleasant feeling of accomplishment. But he should be urged to speak in simple language and not to try to translate what he wants to say from English into Russian. Those who have lived in a foreign country know that the whole trick of learning to speak a language is the ability to change quickly what one wants to say, but cannot say, into another form or construction which uses only the words one knows. It is amazing how much a student, who is able to do this, can say after only a few months of study. Grammatical perfection should not be the aim. The student's eagerness to talk disappears quickly when he is interrupted at every word. Often conversation in a language class is limited to the retelling of a story from the reader, or to the answering of questions relating to the story read. I must confess that I do not believe in this method. It may be helpful to check whether the student has understood what he read; it does not give him the feeling that he really can express what he wants to say. This can only be achieved if one asks direct, even personal questions, for instance about the student's family or friends, about his home-town, about things he did during his vacation or anything else. Then the other students in class will generally be interested in the answers and often, after class, they continue to speak Russian among themselves. This kind of conversation is not only a great help in building up active vocabulary, but more important still, it is the best means to overcome the feeling of discouragement which threatens the success of a second-year class.

After two years of college French, German or Spanish the student is generally prepared to enter a literature class given entirely in the foreign language. This should also be possible after two years of Russian. It may be more difficult for the teacher of Russian to reach this goal than for his colleagues who teach other languages. But we should not underestimate the great advantage we have, precisely because Russian is considered to be more difficult than other languages, namely, the fact that generally only the more intelligent and able students will want to learn Russian. Most of them are willing and prepared to work hard, and this should offset at least some of the difficulties which face the teacher of Russian.

FRANCES DE GRAAFF

*Bryn Mawr College and Haverford College*

# *They Learn So Easily*

## *An Experiment in Teaching French and Spanish to Fifth and Sixth Graders*

FOLLOWING the assumption that children learn a foreign language much more easily than adults, the Department of Foreign Languages of Kent State University, in co-operation with the University School, initiated a three months' program in the teaching of French and Spanish to fifth and sixth graders respectively.

The problem of selection of pupils was solved by sending letters to the parents of the most outstanding students in each grade, asking them to approve their children's admission to a foreign language class. Thirty replied favorably. As the sixth graders had already studied South American geography and had made murals of Argentina, Peru, Panama, and Mexico in art class, they were predisposed to Spanish. On the other hand, the fifth graders wanted to try French.

Of course we began without any texts, using a completely oral approach. By the end of the first week the sixth graders were writing phonetic (?) transcriptions of what they heard and at the end of the third week the fifth graders were eager to see some of the simple sentence patterns which they had memorized. Instead of translating these, they illustrated them with their own drawings. Repeatedly they requested permission to go to the blackboard to draw a picture of the object under discussion with its French label below. The sixth grade writing consisted mainly of copying Spanish sentences from the board.

Believing that the child learns more readily statements about familiar objects and actions in his own daily life, we began with the "What (Who) is this?" model, applying it to such subjects as the classroom, the parts of the body, clothing, and the family. Colors were taught by such questions as "What color is the book?" in both languages. Comprehension was checked by asking, "Is the book blue?" The reply was almost invariably the correct one, "No, señorita (or mademoiselle), the book is not blue; it is red."

The negative of the French verb presented no difficulty whatsoever. being learned unconsciously with no questions from the learners. There was some confusion concerning feminine definite articles, for the masculine had been thoroughly drilled orally before the presentation of the former.

Our pupils did not learn verbs by conjugating them, but rather by using them, beginning with the third person singular interrogative of the verb *to be* and *to have*. This form was chosen deliberately because it involved no

change in the answer. Then, realizing their interest in themselves, we proceeded to teach the first and second persons.

The imperative took care of itself in such commands as "Faites attention," "Cierre la puerta," etc. In fact, these were sometimes repeated by the pupils themselves in giving instructions to their comrades.

Both the fifth and sixth graders delighted in constant participation and repetition, sometimes in slightly varied form. For example, they never tired of singing the same songs every day, particularly rounds. Different pupils frequently acted as teacher, asking questions of their classmates.

An interesting technique for the teaching of the demonstratives is a "ring around the rosy" type of game called "Arroz con leche." A boy takes his place in the center of a circle. The pupils walk round and round as they sing,

"Arroz con leche, me quiero casar  
Con una señorita de este lugar  
Con ésta sí, con ésta no  
Con esta señorita me casaré yo."

At this point, the boy who is "it" chooses a girl who in turn becomes "it" and chooses a boy when the words "con éste sí, con éste no, con este señor me casaré yo," are sung.

Pupils brought balls to school and learned to count by bouncing them, pronouncing each number as they did so. The fifth graders had fun repeating the rhyme:

"Un, deux, trois  
J'irai dans le bois  
Quatre, cinq, six  
Cueillir des cerises  
Sept, huit, neuf  
Dans le panier neuf  
Dix, onze, douze  
Ellos seront toutes rouges."

The sixth graders sang:

"Dos y dos son cuatro  
Cuatro y dos son seis  
Seis y dos son ocho  
Y ocho diez y seis  
Y ocho veinticuatro  
Y ocho treinta y dos.  
Entro en la capilla  
Y me arrodillo yo."

We found that the pupils unconsciously applied words learned in this way to other situations. For example, a pupil one day delightedly exclaimed,

"Voici un panier," a statement which he had learned in the above rhyme.

The sixth grade pupils read and conversed about stories in a first grade Spanish reader for Mexican children. In doing so they added to their vocabulary such words as *venga*, *corra* and *tire*, as well as the names of several domestic animals, modes of transportation, etc.

The children also readily learned vocabulary and action words through such songs as *Fray Martín*, *Frère Jacques*, *Cinco pollitos tiene mi Tía*, *Au clair de la lune*, *Sur le Pont d'Avignon*, etc. We introduced these because children retain material which rhymes more easily than that which does not.

In Kent State University School there is no rivalry between French and Spanish. We co-operate closely in working out the lesson plans and general procedures, some of which were suggested by the Cleveland Plan. At the end of the three months of experimentation, we planned a combined program consisting of songs in each language, demonstrations of classroom procedure, the presentation of a puppet show representing the Bumstead family with original dialogue in Spanish, and a short French play.

Even though this experiment in French and Spanish has been carried on for only one-half hour daily, after school, it has obviously been worthwhile. Pupils have expressed an almost unanimous desire to continue their study; they are using the foreign languages outside the classroom; in fact, they are even teaching them to their parents. It is small wonder that they are doing so—they learn so easily!

HELEN W. MACHAN AND  
HAZEL M. MESSIMORE

*Kent State University*

## *A Tribute to Dr. Emile de Sauzé*

**D**R. EMILE DE SAUZÉ, Director of Foreign Languages in the Cleveland Public Schools, is retiring to private life in June, 1949, after a distinguished career of more than forty years in the field of languages.

Dr. de Sauzé was born in the city of Tours, France, and came to the United States in 1905. He was head of the department of Romance languages in Temple University from 1905 through 1916. He was professor of French at the University of Pennsylvania from 1916 through 1918.

In 1918, Dr. de Sauzé was invited to come to the Cleveland school system as Director of Foreign Languages and his brilliant work brought him an international reputation among progressive leaders and teachers of foreign languages. He inaugurated a system for the teaching of French, German, and Spanish on which he had been experimenting a number of years. This method has become known nationally as the Cleveland Plan, a method that places the emphasis on the spoken language with a solid foundation of grammar as a basis.

Dr. de Sauzé, though an administrator in Cleveland these past years, has never lost touch with the classroom. As professor of French in the Graduate School of Western Reserve University, he has annually offered courses in French Literature and in methods of teaching foreign languages.

Over a span of years, he has been Director of the Foreign Language Summer School of Western Reserve University.

Dr. de Sauzé has been a central figure in Cleveland culture during his thirty years association with that city. He has been Director of *Maison Française de Cleveland*, an adult group of prominent citizens who interest themselves in France and French culture and who bring to Cleveland many outstanding celebrities of the literary and musical world of France. He is a former president of the Cleveland Civic Concert Association.

Dr. de Sauzé has been very active in professional organizations. He is a former president of the American Association of Teachers of French, The Association of Modern Language Teachers of the Central West and South, and the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers.

On December 4, 1948, his many Cleveland friends and associates in the schools of Cleveland and neighboring cities gave a testimonial dinner in his honor at the Hotel Cleveland to commemorate his thirty years of devotion to the cause of foreign languages and culture in general.

Words fail the writer to pay a fitting tribute to one who has been counselor and friend to him for over a quarter of a century, but certain it is that



we "shall not look upon his like" for many a day. He is a scholar, an upright citizen, a gentleman, a giant in his field of endeavor, a trail-blazer with the courage of his convictions, a dreamer who dreamed his dreams to their practical conclusions, an idealist who never allowed any stain to tarnish his escutcheon.

WALTER W. DuBREUIL

*Lincoln High School and  
Western Reserve University*

## *Professor Morris C. Bishop Honored*

DR. MORRIS C. BISHOP, Kappa Alpha professor of Romance Languages and literature at Cornell University, was awarded an honorary degree by the University of Rennes during a two-day ceremony at the French institution Nov. 29-30. The degree, doctor honoris causa, is being conferred with the endorsement of the French Ministry of Education.

Dr. Bishop has been decorated with the Order of the White Rose of Finland and is an officer of the French Academy and a Knight of the Legion of Honor.

## *Donald Walsh Assumes New Duties*

MR. DONALD DEVENISH WALSH of the Chaote School, Wallingford, Connecticut, has been appointed Assistant Editor of *Hispania*, effective with the February, 1949, issue. Mr. Walsh has been Advertising Manager of *Hispania* for several years and he will function in both capacities for the coming year. Mr. Walsh is the author of several textbooks in Spanish, he is the First Vice-President of the AATSP, he served as the General Program Chairman for the Annual Meeting of the AATSP in New York, and he made the local arrangements for the Joint Meeting of the National Federation in New York.

Donald Walsh has our best wishes in his new activity, and we congratulate Dean Doyle and the AATSP for their excellent choice.

# Notes and News

---

## *Modern Languages*<sup>1</sup>

Mr. President:

In the days of the Middle Ages, on the hill of Saint Geneviève, where the ancient Sorbonne stood and the modern University of Paris stands today, the ceremony of the conferring of the degree of Master of Arts included a symbolic gesture whereby the officiating professor took into his arms and pressed to his breast each of the new graduates. There were no women candidates in those days: the gesture implied only disinterested enthusiasm for the cause of knowledge. It signified, more humanly than the sheepskin parchment, that the New Master would not only enjoy henceforth the rights, the privileges and the honors that went with his degree, but that the affectionate good wishes of his fellow scholars would be with him in his career. It is a pleasure and an honor for your visiting professor this evening metaphorically, morally, to embrace these who are about to receive the recognition and reward of their labor.

Had this ceremony really taken place in the Middle Ages, my address would have been in Latin; and I should have, of course, expected some sort of reply, in Latin likewise, from the recipients. They are probably relieved to know that this part of the proceedings is modified today: certainly not more relieved than is the visiting professor himself. But, in those days, all modern language students would have been at their ease; for Latin was the only foreign language they would have had to study.

They would have learned it as a living tongue, to think in, to speak in, to write in. For centuries Latin existed as the exact equivalent of the diverse tongues we learn today. In the Seventeenth Century, Milton could use it—undiplomatically—to pour violent abuse and insult on his Continental adversaries, with the pleasant satisfaction that he would be perfectly understood; and he could use it—diplomatically—for State correspondence with the Continental powers, with the equally pleasant satisfaction that he would be perfectly misunderstood. Latin had all the advantages and all the convenience of our modern languages. The great humanists, having at their disposal this one instrument of international communication were, in a sense, the ancestors of the modern language students of today. It is you—Masters in French, in Italian, in Spanish, in German, in Russian—who really inherit their tradition.

Since those days, modern languages have come into their own; but not without a struggle. Many great minds refused to believe in them. Bacon, in the Renaissance, considered they had no future, and preferred to entrust to Latin what he deemed was most valuable in his thought. Ironically enough, it is by his writings in English, for which he had little admiration, that posterity remembers him. But even English, which we think of these days as a well-established and well-accepted language, had its ups and downs. Not so very long ago—about the beginning of the Eighteenth Century—a French critic remarks: "The English have many good books. It is a pity they write them in English." Nowadays, of course, we deplore that our modern novelists and poets don't write in English. But the remark of the Eighteenth Century Frenchman shows that at the time, there was no enthusiasm in France, at all events, for learning foreign

<sup>1</sup> An address given by Dr. Albert Farmer, Professor of English Literature at the Sorbonne, on the occasion of the awarding of degrees at the close of the Middlebury College Language Schools, August 16, 1948.

tongues. In England itself, during the Nineteenth Century, there was long a similar scorn for the languages of other nations. The great Public Schools did not teach them until the middle of the century, and then only with hesitation and reluctance. For one of the famous headmasters of Eton, they were on the same level and in the same category as chemistry and physics, which he considered primarily as "smelly." And I have often wondered whether Poe was not making an ironical thrust at modern languages in the well-known murder story where, you recollect, people heard behind a closed door the sound of high-pitched speech. One recognized it as Italian, another as French, another as Dutch; there were people, in fact, ready to identify it with any language. It turned out to be the gibbering of a particularly voluble monkey.

We have "changed all that," and the proof is that you are here this evening, arrayed in cap and gown. You have chosen, most of you, to enter the domain of modern language teaching. It is a domain where many are called, and few are chosen; but that, so far as I know, is its only resemblance to the Kingdom of Heaven. There are moments, as you have perhaps experienced, when all would be inclined to connect it rather with another place which, in this chapel, it is as well not to mention. It is at any rate a domain which demands a great deal of labor, of patience, and even—whatever our detractors may say—a certain amount of intelligence. The gift of tongues no longer descends on men's heads, as of old, in flames of fire; the only flame that burns is that of your own enthusiasm.

Of that enthusiasm you have given ample proof. You have considered that it is not enough to be qualified by a Bachelor's degree, for the teaching of a language. You have resolved to go further, to carry on your studies along new lines, going ever deeper into the thought, the literature, the civilization of the people whose language you have chosen, and perfecting at the same time your practical knowledge of that language. For this, you have sacrificed the holidays you had earned so well, the rest to which you were entitled; you have sacrificed, for six arduous weeks, your peace of mind. That is something which has my sincere admiration. I am not sure that in Europe, in France at all events, I should find easily a parallel case.

But the recompense is here. You will go back to your classes fortified and confident in the knowledge that you really are a specialist in your particular language, that you have become—in the most complete sense of the term—a Master. That knowledge will not only sustain you in the world of teaching; it will give you, in the greater world with its complex problems and tangled issues, more clearness of vision and of judgement than most. You will not make the errors which so many make in judging foreign nations. I picked up the other day a French translation of *Babbitt*, and I came on the passage where Babbitt says to Mrs. Babbitt: "Now, look here, hon, . . ." The translator had put in a note: "*Hon*: abbreviation of 'honorable.'" American husbands address their wives by this title." Obviously, he had not been to the United States. That is only a minor error of incompetence. Other errors are graver, for they affect the welfare of all of us. The Master in a modern language who has learned to know another country and another people, which means that he can not only speak, but see and think as they do, has not only immeasurably enriched himself; he has made of himself—in a world too often swayed by unreasoning prejudice and even blind hatred—a factor of a better understanding between nations.

I thank you, Mr. President, for having given me the privilege and the pleasure of saying these few words to the new Masters of the Language School. As they are seated before me, I see that between the different languages, there is no hierarchy; all equally honored. And that is as it should be; for who can say that this language is greater, or better, or has rendered to humanity, or will render to humanity, more service than that one? French is side by side with Italian, with Spanish, with Russian, and even English—that now somewhat neglected branch of the American language—is represented symbolically in your speaker. To all the Masters of all the Schools, I offer my sincerest congratulations for your present success, my warmest good wishes for success in the future.

### *The Place & Function of Modern Languages*

In view of the increasing role of the United States in world affairs and the fact that New York City has become the headquarters of U. N., the importance of a knowledge of foreign languages has increased considerably. If our country is to be effective in its political, economic and cultural leadership of the world, it must educate an intelligent electorate and it must train specialists to cope successfully with international problems.

The very essence of international understanding is the recognition that through languages we acquire a clearer insight into the civilizations of our neighbors. The schools must lay the basis of better intercultural relations by providing a more extensive and a more intensive course in foreign languages.

In an endeavor to meet this need a committee consisting of Superintendent Jacob Greenberg, Director Theodore Huebener, Professor Henri Olinger, Professor Mario Pei, Renée J. Fulton, Social Director of UNESCO Seminar, Principal Henry E. Hein, and several teachers have made a number of important recommendations regarding foreign language instruction on the secondary level. The printed report, which has just been published, is entitled "The Place and Function of Modern Languages in the Public Schools."

The more significant of its ten recommendations are:

1. In view of the fact that the learning of a language is a long and cumulative process requiring constant practice, the study of a foreign language should begin in the seventh grade.

2. Since a language is best acquired when the practice is spread over a longer period of time, a foreign language should be studied for six years, continuing from the seventh through the twelfth grades.

3. In view of the fact that there are no reliable means of predicting success in language study, all pupils whose I.Q. and reading score are not extremely low, should be permitted to study a language for one year as a trial period.

4. Since there is an appreciably constant demand for trained personnel equipped with a foreign language—a demand which has recently increased, because of international relations, a special school should be established to train qualified students for the vocational use of foreign languages. Such a school would prepare for positions in banks, travel agencies, and foreign departments of commercial concerns; for clerical and secretarial positions in consular and diplomatic offices; and for a variety of jobs with governmental missions working in foreign fields.

It is obvious that the acceptance of only some of these recommendations would expand our foreign language instruction greatly and increase its effectiveness considerably.

It is pathetic that the United States with its vast expenditures for education and with its dominant political, economic and cultural position in the world, should provide so meagre a place in its curriculum for the study of foreign languages.

THEODORE HUEBENER

*Director of Foreign Languages  
Schools of New York City*

### *New Summer School Founded*

We have all heard repeatedly stated that foreign languages are better taught in Europe than in the United States. I do not know to what extent this affirmation is true. Having arrived in this country two years ago from Spain, my general impression on methods of teaching modern languages in the United States is that the American college student has at his disposal infinitely more facilities here than the average student in high institutions of learning abroad. I will illustrate this assertion with an example.

This summer I had the most interesting experience in teaching Spanish at the Colby-

Swarthmore Summer School of Languages, founded this year as the joint project of the two colleges and held at Colby in Waterville, Maine. The School is primarily for undergraduates, both men and women, and also for students who are about to enter college.

The School gave intensive courses in elementary, intermediate and advanced French, German, Russian and Spanish, covering in seven weeks of concentrated work the equivalent of that of a full college year. Each course met five days a week, three hours a day, divided into three parts: (1) Grammar, syntax, and drill; (2) Reading and writing; (3) Oral practice. Three different instructors taught each course daily, each one devoted to the particular phase assigned to him.

But the outstanding feature of the Colby-Swarthmore experiment was the human element. The teaching of a modern language cannot be carried out successfully by the mere and monotonous transmission from teacher to student of certain rules, sounds and symbols which put together express ideas. A true and successful language teacher who lives his profession must be something more than a simple linguist or translator. He has no less an elevated and difficult task than teaching how the people of a country—or of many countries—express their thoughts and feelings; what language is used from morning to night by the people of the country or countries where it is spoken. And this is precisely what we tried to do at Colby-Swarthmore with the thoroughness that was reasonably possible considering that a good proportion of the students were beginners.

All the faculty lived in the dormitories with the students. This is a *sine qua non* condition for the fulfillment of the tasks planned. The instructors maintained at all times an intimate contact with the students in such a way that the academic friendship created paved the way for rapid progress in getting familiar with the foreign language. For breakfast, lunch and supper, instructors and students sat together in the dining-room of the School. The daily menus were translated into the respective languages. Meal time afforded the best opportunity for informal conversation.

Twelve miles from the School is the Great Pond, the largest of the Belgrade Lakes, and one of the most beautiful I have ever seen. Instead of the usual week-end recess, when students take the opportunity to leave college and forget about their work for a couple of days, Colby-Swarthmore decided to have the recess on Thursdays and Sundays. But, although classes were not held on these days, the time was not wasted. The School provided a bus which took students and instructors to the lake where Colby maintains an Outing Club Lodge. This again afforded an excellent occasion for an exchange of conversation between instructors and students and among the students themselves. Likewise, once a week, bus trips were made to the famous Lakewood Summer Theater in nearby Skowhegan.

Every Saturday night there was a general get-together party for all students and instructors with plenty of music, singing and dancing in the adequate international atmosphere. One night was dedicated to each of the countries whose languages were being learned.

Every Monday we devoted an hour to singing Spanish and Spanish American songs. Furthermore, the instructors were always available to engage in the old Spanish custom of the "tertulia," after supper.

It would appear that after such an intensive and uninterrupted contact with the students it must have been rather tiresome for the instructors. By my own experience and by what my colleagues told me, it was a satisfaction to enjoy the company and friendship of the majority of the students. It was an incentive to us to see the students so deeply interested in the work we were doing almost in an unconscious manner.

Mechanical devices to supplement the teaching of languages were not ignored. The instructors in charge of the oral phase of the courses cut records on the Fairchild Recorder. These recordings were accessible to the interested students at all times. They were expected to play them on the Language Master phonograph at least twice a week.

More spectacular to the students was the Sound Mirror, a tape recorder which reproduces

the human voice to an incredibly exact degree. It was used for corrective work in pronunciation once a week with each student individually.

One more facility was given to the students by providing them with a system of private conferences with the instructors. Twice a week a student had a fifteen-minute appointment for private instruction and discussion of his individual language problems with the instructor.

Professor John F. McCoy, the Director of the School, in planning the inaugural year, did not omit any facility conceivable for the rational teaching of modern languages in a realistic way. No wonder that both faculty and students expressed their unqualified enthusiasm for the School—not excepting those who could not pass the course.

It would be difficult to find abroad any teaching institutions that offer as many facilities for learning a foreign language. After only one year of existence, it is too soon to give a definite and conclusive judgment of the results obtained, but the first indications cannot be more encouraging.

*Dartmouth College.*

FRANCISCO UGARTE

FOREIGN LANGUAGE ENROLLMENT—CITY OF NEW YORK

	February, 1948	October, 1948
French	45,972	48,532
German	7,269	7,279
Greek	20	17
Hebrew	3,265	3,727
Italian	10,077	10,887
Latin	11,465	10,417
Spanish	56,672	60,387
General Language	744	957
Gaelic	60	33
Norwegian	69	69



## *Announcements*

---

The United States Office of Education announces the availability of graduate fellowships for study and research in the other American republics as provided under the Convention for the promotion of Inter-American Cultural relations. There are a number of vacancies, and applications will be received until all panels have been filled with well qualified candidates. This announcement comes from the American Republics Section, Division of International Educational Relations.

The Department of State occasionally awards grants to experienced college or high school language teaching personnel to enable them to accept positions in the cultural centers which the Department assists in maintaining in the other American republics as part of its program of educational exchange. The teaching is on an adult level and consists largely of instruction in the English language as spoken in North America for nationals of the south and Central American countries.

Recipients of these grants are expected to remain with the program for a minimum of two years. They should have a knowledge of Spanish, Portuguese or (in the case of Haiti) French and a knowledge of linguistic science would prove desirable, though it is not considered as yet an imperative qualification. This program affords teachers an excellent opportunity to gain valuable experience, especially in the foreign language field. Further information can be obtained by writing to the Cultural Centers Section, Division of Libraries and Institutes, Department of State, Washington 25, D. C.

### *Notice to Subscribers*

Most personal subscriptions to the *Modern Language Journal* expire at the end of the calendar year. If your subscription expires with the December issue and has not yet been renewed for 1949 please send your renewal *now* to the Business Manager, Mr. Stephen L. Pitcher, 7144 Washington Avenue, St. Louis 5, Missouri, or, if you are a member of one of the affiliated regional associations, please send your dues *now* to the treasurer of your association, including \$3.00 for your 1949 subscription to the *Journal*. If the mailing address we now have for you is incorrect or inadequate in any way please make sure that the Business Manager has your correct address, including postal zone number if you have one, or, if you change your address at any time during the year, please send the new address as promptly as possible to the Business Manager. By complying with these requests you will save the *Journal* expense and at the same time insure prompt and uninterrupted delivery of your copies to you.

## Reviews

*The E.U.P. Concise French and English Dictionary.* David McKay Co., Philadelphia, for The English Universities Press, Ltd., n. d., pp. 491. Price, \$1.50.

This handy, pocket-fitting French-English and English-French dictionary contains 35,000 well-chosen, freshly-defined words, printed in large, clear type on excellent paper. Its attractive make-up invites frequent and enjoyable use.

An unusual feature of this volume is a valuable list of "Some Idioms and Phrases" (pp. 241-262), containing many neatly-turned translations not to be found in dictionaries of the same class. The old classroom favorites are there, but the choice and definition are often unhackneyed and amusing, e.g., *Il n'est plus jeune, mais il a encor des idées*, "there's life in the old dog yet."

There are also eight pages of irregular verb-forms and a list of metric weights and measures with approximate English equivalents. The two separate lists of Christian names and geographical names should have been incorporated in the main vocabulary as is done in the newer dictionaries of the English language.

No etymologies are given, pronunciations are not indicated, and aspirate "h" is unmarked. The last two omissions are serious in a book that will probably be used by many beginners.

Objections will certainly be made here in America to the prevalence of unintelligible or misleading Anglicisms. A notorious example is the glossing of *blé* as "corn," an error that was reported to have caused a huge shipment of corn instead of wheat to be sent to France under the UNRRA program with consequent unpleasant diplomatic repercussions. *Folichonner*, is defined "to rag," which in Americanese would be a transitive verb with an entirely different meaning. Other Anglicisms are: *défense d'afficher*, "stick no bills"; *camion*, "lorry" (truck is not found in the English section); *avoir le cafard*, "browed off"; *défense passive anti-aérienne*, A.R.P.; *passer l'arme à gauche*, "peg out"; *brosseur*, "batman"; *voiture salon*, "saloon carriage." So in the English-French vocabulary we find "level crossing" (*passage à niveau*), instead of "grade crossing"; "preference shares" (*actions privilégiées*), for "preferred stock"; "ratepayer" (*contribuable*), for "taxpayer." "Cracker" is only a *pâtard*.

Other definitions, though correct, seem rather insufficient. *Baccalauréat* is more than a "school-leaving examination"; *accumulateur*, defined as an "accumulator," is more often a "battery"; *être d'accord*, "to be in tune," is used more frequently in its derived meaning "to agree"; *syndicat*, though a "syndicate" and "association," is now more commonly a "labor union," or simply "union."

The E.U.P. dictionary is particularly well stocked with modern words of a scientific or technical nature that are often difficult to find in the common run of dictionaries. In aviation, we find *porte-avions*, *avion de combat*, *avion de chasse*, *avion de bombardement*, *avion de reconnaissance*, *terrain d'atterrissage*, *amerrir*, *amerrissage*, *carlingue*; in radio, *transmetteur*, *radio-diffuser*, *haut-parleur*, *être à l'écoute*; automobilism, *pare-boue*, *pare-brise*, *pare-choc*, *boîte des vitesses*, *changement de vitesse*, *autodémarreur*, *amortisseur*, *bougie d'allumage*, *baladeuse* (trailer); war terms, *bombe incendiaire* (but not *bombe atomique*), *char d'assaut*, *auto-blindée lance-flammes*, *lance-fusées*, *contre-lorpileur*, *gaz asphyxiant*, *troupes d'assaut*; motion pictures, *écran*, *tourner un film*, *film d'actualité*; miscellaneous, *bouteille isolante*, *ouvre-bottes*, *disque* (but not *phonographie*), *ondulation permanente* (but not *indéfrisable*), *aspirateur*, *portemine*. Some common words which are lacking are: *vedette*, *film sonore* or *parlant*, *réalisateur*, *bolttin*.

The editors make a point of including modern slang, e.g., *une botte (un four) à bachot*, *botte de nuit*, *faiseuse d'anges*, *paradis*, i.e. "upper gallery," a word translated literally and incorrectly in a recent French film widely shown in America, *Les Enfants du Paradis*; and in English, "joystick," "smell a rat," bamboozle, etc. I question the propriety of the humorous neologism "burgle" to translate *cambríoler*. Many picturesque expressions are included in the English section: "chequered career," "kick up a row," "kith and kin," "the whole bag of tricks" (*tout le tremblement*), "to be in full swing" (*battre son plein*), etc.

The dictionary should be of particular service to beginning students, to travellers, and generally to those who find the fine print of most dictionaries trying. For its price, size, and purpose, it is the most desirable French dictionary that this reviewer knows.

RICHARD PARKER

New York University

BRODIN, SYLVIE BOSTSARRON AND VIGNERAS, MARCEL, *Le Barbier de Séville*. The Dryden Press, New York, 1947, pp. 157. Price, \$1.45.

It has been fairly well established by this time, at least in the field of modern languages, that a class text may be both attractive in appearance and scholarly in character. Practically all of the recent publications of The Dryden Press, under the general editorship of Professor Frederic Ernst, have afforded ample proof that these two ends may be achieved without a lowering of standards in either direction. As a consequence, the intrinsic value of many textbooks has been considerably enhanced. *Le Barbier de Séville*, as edited by Sylvie Bostsarron Brodin and Marcel Vigneras, brings added charm to an originally delightful and fresh comedy. It should be an unusually inviting book for use in intermediate classes, in survey groups, and in courses in eighteenth-century literature.

For the latter, however, it would have been advisable to provide a more thorough and detailed introduction, presenting a more complete picture of the author, his work and his time. To be sure, one may find in the libraries of the larger schools any number of good books dealing with this subject, but it must be remembered that not all students have access to adequate libraries, and even those who do at times fail to take advantage of their opportunities. In any case, such information would become at least the physical property of the student were it contained in the text. A selected bibliography would add much to the value of the work for the student of literature who cared to satisfy whatever intellectual curiosity the reading of the play might arouse.

This new edition of *Le Barbier de Séville* is a reprint of the text and notes found in *En Scène* (Dryden Press, 1942), by the same editors. In the preface to the earlier work is found this statement, "No play conveys its full significance to the reader unless he is able to see it alive on the stage, or unless he is provided with the means for staging it in his own imagination." Those means have, on the whole, been well provided, but why were not the pages devoted to the "*mise en scène*" included in the recent work? Furthermore, if, as the editors say in the same preface, "the musical score can hardly be subtracted from a play without altering the character deliberately chosen for it by the author," why were these most interesting and valuable pages of musical score omitted from the later work?

The sketches by Simon Lissim are very effective and aid materially in creating an atmosphere of the eighteenth century which is so essential if one's appreciation of Beaumarchais is going to be anything more than superficial. For those students and teachers who are unable to visualize a stage-setting from a mere description, the diagrams at the opening of Acts I and II are especially valuable, to say nothing of their worth for those who will attempt to produce the comedy.

On the whole, the decisions made in the process of annotation were judicious and effective. One might wish for something more elaborate, however, in explanation of the "drame bourgeois," than that it "was a new type of play recently introduced" (note 2, p. 24). Is the note

(p. 40, note 16) that "enfiévré=communiqué" more effective than the translation which the student is likely to arrive at himself? Is it necessary (page 92, note 1) to explain, even to the second-year student, that in "Rosine, que ta figure atroce aura mise en fuite" the verb is in the future to express probability?

But this is mere quibbling over details, most of which would turn out to be matters of opinion, and should by no means be taken as an indication of a belief that the editors have not done a most thorough and conscientious piece of work. It is to be hoped that someday they may find time to do as well with some of the other dramatic compositions of the same century. Why not, for example, an equally appropriate edition of *Le Mariage de Figaro*?

B. A. RENKENBERGER

Ohio University  
Athens, Ohio

MOLIÈRE: *Le Misanthrope*, edited by Ronald A. Wilson, D. C. Heath and Company, Boston, 1947, pp. lvi+117. Price, \$1.12.

Although the editor has given the reader no preface to indicate the purpose of this particular edition of the play, which is already available in numerous editions, it appears suitable for instructors who desire to initiate intermediate students in the reading of Molière. It is a very attractive little volume in appearance, and the illustrations should arouse the interest of the student. The notes and vocabulary are adequate. The rather lengthy introduction is not entirely satisfactory, and instructors will find it advisable to supplement it. The date of publication of the works listed in the bibliography and some of the statements which appear in the introduction leave the impression that the material was prepared years ago, and has not been revised recently.

MOLIÈRE: *Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme*, edited by Ronald A. Wilson, D. C. Heath and Company, Boston, 1947, pp. liii+133. Price, \$1.20.

This edition has an attractive appearance also with sufficient notes and a vocabulary that will enable a student to read the play rather early in his study of French. A portion of the introduction (pp. v-xxxix) is identical to that which is in *Le Misanthrope*.

VIRGIL A. WARREN

Cumberland University  
Lebanon, Tennessee

JASSOGNE, FLORENTINE B. AND SEVERANCE, MILDRED, *En Vacances*. Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1948, pp. viii+173+xx. Price, \$1.60.

This interesting little text is an excellent medium for reading and conversation in elementary French classes. Although the authors state frankly that they have not attempted to construct a plot or to present character study, the narrative is sufficiently connected in the thirty-three passages to sustain the student's interest. The subject matter is more appropriate than usual for beginners in high school and college. The student encounters here interests of his own age-group rather than those of juveniles or mature adults. There is a nice proportion of humor and fact. Although there is a description of only a part of France and French civilization, it is sufficient to excite the curiosity of many students. Furthermore, contemporary events are not omitted.

The exercises are well planned and ably executed. Emphasis is placed on a practical vocabulary, the acquisition of which should be facilitated by the various types of drill employed. A final review that is very effective is provided in the pertinent questions which appear on the last page of the text.

VIRGIL A. WARREN

Cumberland University  
Lebanon, Tennessee

ROY, REV. C. E., *Percé (its nature, its history)*. Privately printed in Canada, 1947, pp. 159+xlvi (Welcome to Gaspé Visitors). Price, \$1.50.

This is the second of two monographs of Father C. E. Roy, parish priest of the district of Percé, both devoted to the region of the Gaspé Peninsula in the Gulf of St. Lawrence. The first, entitled *Gaspé depuis Cartier and Historical Gaspé*, was published in 1934, and is said to have been very successful.

The present work is a labor of love. The little pioneer fishing village of Percé has now evolved into a center of heavy tourist traffic and trade, and Father Roy has wanted to do his part (a great and by no means "sad" one) to explain and interpret to the world the people and the abounding natural wonders of the seat of his labors. It is his intention that visitors shall be enabled to evaluate in advance of their coming what they are to see and enjoy; and that the people of the Peninsula, and of Percé in particular, may have a better chance, through his information and admonitions, to remain simple and unspoiled under the characteristically detrimental assaults of unbridled tourism.

The first part of *Percé* is mainly descriptive, and presents the little, still picture-show-less village, in its natural setting. The second traces the evolution of its people. The whole, constitutes an informative, lively, and entertaining religious, geographical, historical, sociological study, carefully documented. It is in tough white paper covers, and there is an abundance of illustrations.

The most startling natural feature about Percé is The Rock, Le Rocher Percé, from which the town drew its name (escaping, by virtue of French resistance, from the odium attachable to a Percy, a Piercie, or a Piercee, which the spelling in the reports of certain British officials might have engendered).

This is a magnificent limestone monolith cut off from the mainland (at some time prior to the arrival of Champlain in 1604), about 1500 feet long and 300 feet wide, with an irregular height ranging from 288 to 154 feet. The sides are sheer, and the top, covered with green grass, is accessible only to birds (mainly herring gulls and cormorants) who live there in vast numbers. The picture presented to the imagination is that of a majestic ocean liner, which with its manifold colorations under the sunlight must indeed at times, like Cleopatra's barge, "burn on the water." The author is not advertising for tourists, for to do so has become supremely unnecessary, but the half-dozen photographs and the old engraving in this book (as well as a painting by Fred Wright in a recent advertisement of Harwood's Canadian Whisky) of this imposing freak of nature are a mighty urge at least to the present writer, who can think of nothing better than to stroll dry-shod at low tide around it, and through the huge arched hole (100 by 60 feet) which pierces it near its eastern tip.

Then there are 1400-foot Mount St. Anne, visible to navigators eighty miles out at sea, and beloved of botanists and geologists, and Bonaventure Island, a sandstone mass three miles off shore, three miles long and a mile and a half wide, known far and wide as the greatest of bird sanctuaries in this hemisphere.

The key-word for the piled-up rocky environs of Percé would seem to be "precipitousness." Le Rocher Percé, as already observed, is completely inviolable by man, and both Bonaventure and Mount St. Anne sternly forbid ascent except from one side only. The infinitely picturesque roads winding from the mountains in the rear into Percé are also often steep in stretches, and often dip down giddily at their sides.

The tourist trade brought to Percé during the period 1934-39 some twenty-five to fifty thousand visitors a year. And now, with the betterment of the roads on the Gaspé Peninsula during and after the war, the sky will apparently be the limit, touristically speaking. Father Roy goes so far as to predict that this region is destined to become for sightseers "the favorite tourist ground."

There is no attempt in this work of Father Roy to extend the bounds of linguistic or literary lore, but it should assuredly be read by all subscribers to this journal who contemplate a sojourn, long or short, in the beautiful part of North America with which it deals, where inci-

dentally more than eighty-two per cent of the population is of French stock and no doubt speaks in large part the French language.

One friendly criticism may be in order. There is need in the book of a large-scale map—the whole eastern seaboard of Canada would not be too large—to show the mystified uninitiated exactly where to find Percé. The three local-detail maps included, satisfactory in themselves, do not perform precisely this essential function; and the average non-Canadian reader must wait until he has consulted an atlas before he can become rightly absorbed in the textual treat before him.

(Those who are interested in routes to Percé will do well to consult an article by James Montagnes, entitled "Gaspé Sanctuaries," in *The New York Times*, May 30, 1948.)

A. M. WITHERS

Concord College  
Athens, W. Va.

BRADY, HALDEEN, *Chaucer and the French Poet Graunson*. Louisiana State University Press, Baton Rouge, 1947, pp. xii+100. Price, \$2.00.

This book is a summing-up and completion of several years' investigation by Professor Brady on the relations between Chaucer and the French soldier-poet Sir Oton de Graunson, whom Chaucer calls in the *Complaint of Venus* "the flour of hem that make in Fraunce." In a short review it is impossible, because of the complex problems raised, to do more than indicate the main issues of the book. The author demonstrates that Graunson was a well-known soldier and poet attached from 1369 for many years to the household of John of Gaunt; that Chaucer undoubtedly knew him well; and that literary relationships resulted from their acquaintance. In the *Monk's Tale*, for example, Chaucer's favorable view of Don Pedro seems best explained as a reflection of the personal experiences in Spain of Graunson and Guichard d'Angle. Professor Brady can not be said to have established Chaucer's authorship of the *Complaynt d'Amours* by the parallels cited, but he makes more plausible comparisons between the *Book of the Duchess* and Graunson's *Complainte de l'An nouvel* and between the *Parliament of Fowls* and Graunson's *Songe saint Valentin*. On the basis of the similarities between the latter pair, Professor Brady believes that "Chaucer's dependence upon outside materials extends beyond his indebtedness to the French poet as the literary source . . . inasmuch as both he and Graunson appear to have made their Valentines the appropriate, indeed the natural, vehicles for historical allusions to real persons and actual events." He also considers that "the date as well as the occasion of a number of Chaucer's finer short poems is explained" by his imitation of the courtly tradition and allegorical practice of Graunson. The book accordingly suggests further examination of Chaucer's rôle as a court poet working in Graunson's manner. Such fundamental indebtedness of Chaucer to Graunson seems hardly established by the evidence, since many of the similarities would be the inevitable result of writing in a common courtly tradition. But one hopes that the author will himself undertake to answer the questions with which he closes.

PHILIP W. TOMBERLAKE

Kenyon College  
Gambier, Ohio

GOEDSCHE, C. R., FLYGT, STEN, AND SPANN, MENO, *A Modern Course in German*. New York, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1947. xii+424 pp. \$3.

Conscientious as he may be, a reviewer can easily miss the mark when judging a textbook that he has not actually tried in class. This is particularly true when the book contains an unusual combination of features, as in the case of *A Modern Course in German*. Accordingly,



this review is being written after the reviewer and his colleagues have had an opportunity to test the volume in their elementary courses and hence feel fully justified in recommending it.

The book contains enough material for a full year of college instruction. It is divided into three sections, the first two of which, comprising twenty-five chapters, represent the basic work. Section three is a reader. A grammatical appendix, a German-English vocabulary, and an index are also provided.

The authors have taken a page from the conversational method, in that they stress the learning of basic sentence patterns, and have combined this approach with a considerable amount of graded reading, reading selections that grow progressively longer and that deal with subjects of interest to the average college student. Each of the twenty-five chapters begins with a "breaking down" of the reading text proper, with English translations in a parallel column, so that the student will grasp the meaning of individual words and phrases as well as their meaning in context. This analysis is followed by the reading selection itself. Comments on grammar, variation drills on sentence patterns, exercises, and a review of the essential vocabulary complete each chapter. Beginning with the second section, the initial reading text of each chapter is finally rewritten with minor variations, so that the student may test his knowledge of the words and idioms presented in the original version. This device, furthermore, helps to give him a feeling of accomplishment. It may also be mentioned at this point that the first section is set in Roman type, after which the Gothic alphabet is introduced.

Since the teaching apparatus is in some respects unusual, a word of explanation is in order. The principles of grammar are presented in language that the student can understand, presented inductively and in fairly complete units. Although every chapter includes some comments on grammar, no attempt is made to explain each new principle in the lesson in which it first occurs. On the contrary, it is allowed to become a part of the student's *Sprachgefühl* before it is analyzed and systematized. Thus a few adjective declensions occur in the reading text of the first lesson but are not explained until the second lesson, the complete presentation of such declensions being postponed until the eighth lesson. The exercises include German questions on the reading, idiomatic sentences for translation into English, deliberate misstatements of fact that must be correctly restated in German by the student, and a number of other devices. There are no blank-filling exercises or English to German translations. The variation drills, particularly effective, can best be illustrated by means of an example: "Ich habe dem Mann meine Meinung gesagt. Richard hat dem Mann seine Meinung gesagt. Anna hat der Frau ihre Meinung gesagt. Haben Sie dem Dekan ihre Meinung gesagt, Herr Jones? . . ." (p. 87).

As for the content of the reading passages, section one represents an exchange of letters between a hypothetical college student and his family, letters which begin in his freshman year and end with his experiences as a practicing engineer. The second section is an imagined series of radio programs from "Sender G F S" and ranges from parodies on American commercials and soap operas to serious discussions of German literature and history. The last chapter in this section, incidentally, presents an excellent analysis of the long attribute—"Die von ganz Europa wegen ihrer Wildheit gefürchteten Wikinger . . ." (p. 277)—a construction of great importance in the reading of technical literature. Section three, the reader, embraces five stories covering seventy-four pages. There are, however, about twice as many words on each page as appear on a page of the average reader. The stories themselves are newcomers to the textbook field. The first, "Die Geschichte von Walter Brooks," is original, a story with a campus setting that makes fun of the typical whodunit. The rest are for the most part free versions of little known German *Novellen*, one of them, "Das Juwelenkästchen," being a transcription of E. T. A. Hoffmann's "Das Fräulein von Scuderi." In adapting the stories, the authors of *A Modern Course in German* have done a creditable job of grading the material and of introducing and repeating important words and idioms. Although constructions become quite involved toward the end, they appear to offer no special difficulty to students who have been gradually prepared for them. New words are regularly translated in footnotes. A check of the end vocabulary made by Richard Delano of Lake Forest Academy reveals a total of about 3000 words

approximately 1900 of which are found in Wadepubl and Morgan's *Minimum German Vocabulary*.

There are a number of misprints as well as a few incorrect and doubtful translations that will have to be corrected by the instructor until a revision of the volume, said to be under way, appears. The inexperienced instructor, especially if he is unacquainted with conversational or intensive methods, may have some difficulty in presenting the grammar, in knowing what to emphasize and what to postpone; for students will frequently inquire about items that are not immediately explained in the book. But the experienced teacher who is in sympathy with the objectives and methods of *A Modern Course in German*, and even the less experienced person who has a fair command of German and is willing to try something different, might well examine this book with a view to possible adoption. For those who do adopt it, here is a time-saving testing device that was found to be very effective in this particular instance and which is mentioned for what it may be worth: Frequent unannounced dictations consisting of five or more German sentences were given. The score was determined by counting as one error each incorrect or omitted word. Sometimes an English translation of the dictated material was also called for. The correlation between these tests, which are easy to make out and grade, and longer, announced examinations was surprisingly high.

FRED GENSCHMER

North Dakota State College  
Fargo

*Tristan und Isold*, in Auswahl herausgegeben von Friedrich Ranke, Verlag A. Francke A. G. Bern, pp. 66. Swiss Fr. 3.50.

Professor Ranke prepared this booklet by selecting the most striking and best scenes found in *Tristan und Isold*. Since this material of an *Übungstext* had to be confined to school use, only six excerpts could be presented. I. Verses 1-244 containing the introduction with the philosophical motif of the Tristan poem. II. Verses 4555-5068 where Gottfried discusses the literary merits of his contemporaries. Here, we also find the ceremony of the *swertleite*. III. Verses 10 803-12 568, where the episode of the love-draught occurs. IV. Verses 14 583-15 046. The lovers meet in the orchard. Their ruse on discovery that Marke and Melot are sitting in a tree observing their tryst. V. Verses 16 403-17 274. Tristan and Isold in the *Minnegrotte*. VI. 18 115-18 600 Tristan and Isold openly deceiving Marke, and without punishment. In the appendix are about 400 verses, just as written by the scribe of *Innsbruck*, a selection of 50 verses taken from *Le Roman de Tristan* by Thomas, and lastly: *Die beiden Sprüche Gottfrieds*. The whole text is collated from the most authoritative sources of Gottfried's poem, the Heidelberg, Munich, Florence and Vienna manuscripts (HMFV). Later manuscripts are only used if they agree with these earlier. There are neither notes nor vocabularies. Nevertheless the text might be used in this country in classes on Middle High German, because the edition of important selections is so excellent, the material so well known and comparatively easy to read.

JOHN G. FRANK

The American University  
Washington, D. C.

FONTANE, THEODOR, *Frau Jenny Treibel*. Introduction, notes and vocabulary by Myra Richards Jessen Appleton-Century-Crofts Inc. New York 1948. Price \$2.40.

More than a half century after its publication, *Frau Jenny Treibel* has finally been prepared and published for use in fourth to sixth semester college classes. Its extensive notes and vocabulary—108 pages—while the text has been held to 180 pages, give the students ample assistance in solving problems which the author's style, characters, and plot present.

Fontane confessed that although his real purpose in this late novel is to expose "the hollow, verbose, hypocritical, haughty stubbornness of the middle class—," he himself has in some measure that which he so detests in the Bourgeois class.

It is not difficult to understand the origin of the new tendency in German social, economic, and political life. After her unification by Bismarck in 1871, Germany soon advanced to a prominent place in international thought, and there arose a confidence and consciousness in German minds which gave birth to many self-satisfied citizens of Berlin from whom Fontane drew for his last novel.

A. E. BIGGE

University of Kentucky  
Lexington, Kentucky

HESSE, HERMANN—*Zwei Erzählungen: Der Novalis and Der Zwerg*—Notes and vocabulary by Anna Jacobson and Anita Asher. Appleton-Century-Crofts Inc. New York 1948. Price \$1.75.

There are offered here for second year students two of Hesse's early, however thoroughly representative, works. Although the texts are the author's without simplification, the preface, copious introduction and notes—82 pages—suffice to help the less advanced students over unfamiliar terms.

*Der Novalis* leads the reader from the generalization that books are treasure chests of feelings, longings, and convictions, to the more specific instances where the reader knows not only the present owner of the volume or volumes, but also can trace the decades of the book's existence—how it passed from one hand to another; often requiring a very painful sacrifice when it was lost or sold.

Hesse relates in a short postscript that such love for books is wholesome, painful, and fruitful.

*Der Zwerg*, a delightful short story of but 30 pages, has a weird tang added to the fiery southern Italian taste for excitement, love, and revenge.

The ravishingly beautiful but spoiled daughter of a nobleman scorns all attention from male admirers. She finds time hangs heavily save for the diversion afforded her by a gorgeously colored parrot and an ugly dwarf, both of which had been brought her by her father on one of his many travels.

All this until a Don Juan sees her and proceeds to captivate her by relating glowing and exciting tales of sailor experiences. Soon all Venice was greatly surprised to learn of the engagement of these two people. The wedding was to take place as soon as the young man had taken care of some very important business in Cypress.

The self-sufficient, handsome young fiance soon aroused the hatred of the dwarf by destroying his favorite companions, the parrot and a crippled dog, and suspicion was aroused in the fiancee when she heard tales of the questionable life her suitor had led.

Born of this uncertainty and an ingenious reference the dwarf makes to a love potion, the beautiful woman prevails upon him to prepare such a drink that she might be certain of her lover's fidelity and not suffer defeat and humiliation.

The bitter and malicious dwarf has led his mistress to this request planning and executing the destruction of the fiance, but it results in his own death, since the suspicious suitor would not drink the (poisoned) drink until the dwarf had sampled it before him.

The inevitable result is that beautiful Margaret becomes violently insane, and for years horrifies Venetians by her weird cries.

A. E. BIGGE

University of Kentucky  
Lexington, Kentucky

HANS M. WOLFF: "Heinrich von Kleist als politischer Dichter." *University of California Publications in Modern Philology*, xxvii, 6, pp. 343-522. 1947.

In this excellent monograph Mr. Wolff, by arranging Kleist's works according to the political ideas expressed in them, has succeeded in tracing a clear-cut line of development which

shows well the ups and downs in the poet's attitude towards the state until, shortly before his death, he finally managed to find a utopian compromise in which the conflicting rights of the individual and of the community were reconciled. Rousseau's influence was particularly striking in the first chapter, called *Der antisoziale Individualismus*, in which Wolff, by investigating Kleist's *Jugendbriefe*, *Die Familie Schroffenstein*, *Die Verlobung in St. Domingo*, *Das Erdbeben in Chili*, *Robert Guiscard*, etc. shows the poet's unwillingness to acknowledge the desirability of the state, because any form of human society is bound to work against the happiness and the freedom of individual human beings. Later, after he has come to realize the necessity of accepting the state and of finding a *modus vivendi* with its agents, Kleist devotes a second phase of his poetic productivity to investigate the problem of what happens when the representatives of law and government abuse of their power. This second chapter, somewhat unsatisfactorily called *Der Liberale Individualismus*, is hence devoted to *Der Findling*, *Der zerbrochene Krug* and, above all, to *Michael Kohlhaas*, with the clergy, the judges and the aristocrats in turn driving individual human beings into a desperate situation which was capable of a happy ending only in the case of *Der zerbrochene Krug*. Kleist's first utopian attempt to sketch a state in which social injustice would be impossible and in which absolute equality for all would reign can be found in *Penthesilea*, such as outlined in the third chapter, *Individualismus und Kollektivismus*—but this utopian dream ended in complete failure because the super-rational state of the Amazones violated the sanctity of human feelings. The political catastrophe in Germany after 1806, no less than Kleist's own evolution of thought as he kept on grappling with this problem, led in *Das Käthchen von Heilbronn* and, above all, in *Die Hermannsschlacht*, to a complete though only momentary, acceptance of the state, to a fanatical affirmation of the worst features of nationalism and perfidiousness in a nation's struggle for survival, in which the ruthlessness of the leader meant everything and the freedom and the integrity of the individual nothing. The influence of Rousseau has disappeared altogether; indeed, the description of treachery among a primitive Germanic tribe is anything but Rousseauistic. The fifth chapter, called *Ausgleich* and devoted to a detailed discussion of *Der Prinz von Homburg* shows Kleist's search for a compromise between extreme individualism and extreme nationalism—and the synthesis thus achieved depicts a patriarchal system in which the inexorable strictness of the law is mitigated by the humaneness and the understanding of the Elector, the guardian and the executor of that law. Mr. Wolff's elucidations in this chapter are especially enriched by his convincing demonstrations of Kleist's indebtedness to Adam Müller's *Elemente der Staatskunst* (1809).

Minor criticisms—e.g. some twenty-odd misprints and a certain wordiness in the discussion of well-known plays and tales—should not detract from the real value of this book, nor from the new and fascinating slant it gives us of Kleist's works and ideas. More serious is the almost complete omission of Kant, for the brief allusion to the Kant-crisis (pp. 358–499) compares very unfavorably indeed with the exhaustive discussion of Rousseau's influence upon our author. It is also to be regretted that Mr. Wolff, who finished his manuscript in 1939, did not bring it up to date before it was printed in 1947—in particular that, with the exception of one lone article in *Modern Language Notes*, he did not care to consult the contributions by American or English scholars (e.g. the valuable books by Messrs. Blankenagel, Silz, *et al.*), for that gives his study an unnecessarily narrow character.

W. P. FRIEDERICH

*The University of North Carolina*

SHEWRING WALTER, *Italian Prose Usage*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 1948, pp. 90. Price, \$1.50.

This book avowedly wants to be a supplement to Italian grammars and dictionaries. It definitely fulfills this task with a few reservations that we shall mention later.

The book is divided into nine chapters and it deals with the parts of speech in the Italian language, word order, vocabulary, and punctuation, setting forth the differences between Eng-

lish and Italian. Mr. Shewring has a remarkable knowledge of Italian, gained through his familiarity with the classics and the leading contemporary authors, whom he has studied most thoroughly and quotes frequently and very aptly.

The study of the infinitive mood (pp. 14-20) is very accurate and, as far as we can judge, complete. Fine points of Italian grammar, accompanied by a very accurate translation into English (such as the use of *andare* with the past participle on pp. 36-37), fully justify the claim that this booklet is a supplement to existing grammars. The additions to Hoare's dictionary (pp. 77-86) are a valuable contribution to fine distinctions between Italian words and English cognates.

As for the reservations that we feel compelled to make, the presentation of the imperfect tense does not seem adequate. A clearer distinction could be made between the imperfect tense and the preterit or present perfect tense of the indicative mood by stating that the preterit or present perfect tense expresses action while the imperfect tense expresses a state or condition that serves as a background to the action related. By "action" is here meant an event the beginning of which is visible in the narrative while by "state" is meant an event or a situation the beginning of which is not apparent in the narrative since it has already had its beginning when considered. In the sentence "Yesterday I met John; he wore a blue sweater," "I met" is obviously a present perfect for one can see the moment when I met John, while the statement "he wore a blue sweater" is in the imperfect, for John already had his sweater on when I met him. In Mr. Shewring's book this basic distinction is not clear.

In the discussion of the future of probability (p. 5), it does not seem to us that there is a difference between Italian and English. The example given (p. 5) "*saranno le dieci*" for "it is ten o'clock" is not accurate. Upon hearing a clock strike, an Italian would not say "*saranno le dieci*," but "*sono le dieci*" since he is sure of the exact time. He would use the other form only if he were uncertain of the exact time.

In discussing the apocopated verb forms *amar, vien, amavan* (p. 2), it would have been well to connect these changes with the influence of articles, either definite or indefinite. In "*così fan tutte*," the customary rhythm of the language suggests "*fan*" with "*tutte*" because the indefinite article *un* is ordinarily used with *tutto*. Italians say "*far venire*," but "*fare scrivere*," obeying the same law of attraction, derived from the article. If *venire* and *scrivere* were used as nouns, *il* and *lo* would be used respectively with them. It would have been well to point out also that apocope takes place only when the last syllable includes the consonants *n, r, or m*.

In supplementing Hoare's dictionary, Mr. Shewring might well have added the frequentative verbs, such as *trociarellare*. He could also have stressed the difference between *assordare* (to deafen) and *assordire* (to become deaf), *imbiancare* (to whiten) and *imbianchire* (to become white), and others of the same type which are not found in the original dictionary. We suggest that the following words also be added to the list: *servetta* (not only *young servant girl* (H), but also *coquettish maid*); *donnaletta* (not only *nice little woman*, but also *flirtatious young woman*); *tonfo* (not so much *heavy fall*, but *thud*); *boscaglia* (not so much *forest district*, but *thick of the woods*); *candela* (not only *candle*, but also *spark plug*); *marcia* (not only *march*, but also *shifting of gears*); *carrozzeria* (not listed, *chassis of an automobile*); *tabella* (not only *list, table*, but also *signpost*); *soggezione* (not so much *embarrassment*, but *shyness*).

These criticisms are not meant to deprive Mr. Shewring's book of the great value that it possesses for anyone who wishes to master the Italian language with the thoroughness achieved by its distinguished author.

D. VITTORINI

University of Pennsylvania

SWANSON, CARL A., ed. *Modern Italian One-Act Plays*. D. C. Heath and Co., Boston, 1948, pp. 243. Price, \$1.64.

Professor Swanson has collected and presented in very attractive form three short plays by three Italian play-wrights who occupy a sure and definite place in the history of modern drama: Giovanni Verga, Giuseppe Giacosa, and Roberto Bracco.



Verga is represented in this volume by *Cavalleria Rusticana*, *Giacosa* by *Diritti dell'Anima*, and *Braccio* by *Don Pietro Caruso*.

Each play is preceded by an introduction that deals succinctly yet clearly with a general characterization of the author and then with the play included in the collection. Thus, Verga is first presented as a novelist and *novellatore* (the term *novelliere* would have been more appropriate), and then as the author of dramatic sketches such as *Cavalleria Rusticana*, which was originally a short story, and *La Lupa*. Useful bits of practical information are also given concerning *Cavalleria*, such as the fact that the libretto of Mascagni's opera (1890) was based on Verga's *Cavalleria* adapted by Targioni-Tozzetti and Menasci.

In the introduction to *Giacosa*'s play, we are prone to give this distinguished author a higher rating than does Professor Swanson, echoing the opinion that Benedetto Croce expressed in his essay on *Giacosa* in the beginning of the century. In this essay *Giacosa* was characterized as a "tamer of poetry," which implied a negative evaluation of *Giacosa* as a creative artist, an opinion that we feel should be revised. While Ibsen's drama *A Doll's House* was unquestionably a sort of beacon in the Europe of the nineties, the central inspiration and the development of *Diritti dell'Anima* are original creations of *Giacosa*. The presence of an obtuse husband and an aspiring wife in any play is not enough justification for linking it to *A Doll's House*.

The text is unusually free of typographical errors. The book contains a very good vocabulary in which the infinitive of verbs is followed very wisely by the forms of the present indicative with the change in vowel sound and stress that takes place so often in Italian without any fixed rule.

The foot-notes that accompany the text of the three plays are very helpful, although this reviewer feels that in a few places additional notes would have been of great help to the reader. Unquestionably, Professor Swanson did not wish to burden the text with too many notes as evidenced by the fact that no exercises are offered.

We wish to call the author's attention to the foot-note on p. 20 which refers to Zia Filomena's words "Lontano sia!" Rather than referring to the "day" as suggested by the note, we believe that the words refer to the devil as evidenced by the fact that Zia Filomena crosses herself, an act meant to ward off the devil's influence. On p. 24, the note suggests that Santuzza "is unconsciously echoing Dante's statement in *Purgatorio* XXX, 39." We doubt that Verga meant Santuzza, an elementary character, to echo Dante's statement. This bit of erudition does not add to a better understanding of the text.

On the whole, however, this book seems admirably fitted for rapid reading in second year or in the second semester of the first year for students in Italian.

D. VITTORINI

University of Pennsylvania







Volume XXXII

DECEMBER 1948

Number 8

P  
PERIODICAL ROOM  
GENERAL LIBRARY  
UNIV. OF MICH.

JAN 27 1949

*The*  
**MODERN  
LANGUAGE  
JOURNAL**



*Published by*  
**THE NATIONAL FEDERATION OF MODERN  
LANGUAGE TEACHERS ASSOCIATIONS**

---

*Editorial Office: University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan*

*Business Office: 450 Ahnaip Street, Menasha, Wisconsin, or 7144  
Washington Avenue, St. Louis 5, Missouri*

# The Modern Language Journal

Published by

THE NATIONAL FEDERATION OF MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHERS ASSOCIATIONS

## EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

STEPHEN A. FREEMAN, Middlebury College, Middlebury, Vt., *President* (American Association of Teachers of French, 1948).  
HENRY GRATTAN DOYLE, The George Washington University, Washington 6, D. C., *Secretary-Treasurer* (Middle States, 1950).  
A. P. COLEMAN, Fairleigh Dickinson College (American Association of Teachers of Slavic and East European Languages, 1951).  
JULIO DEL TORO, University of Michigan, (Central States, 1950).  
WALTER H. FREEMAN, Montclair State Teachers College, Montclair, N. J. (New Jersey, 1951).  
CHARLES W. FRENCH, Boston University (New England, 1951).  
ELTON HOCKING, Purdue University (Central States, 1948).  
WILLIAM A. HURWITZ, West Philadelphia H.S., Philadelphia (Pennsylvania, 1948).

STURGIS E. LEAVITT, University of North Carolina (American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese, 1949).  
LILLY LINDQUIST, Detroit Public Schools (Central States, 1948).  
MARIO A. PEI, Columbia University (New York, 1949).  
C. M. PURIN, Junior College of Castle Heights Military Academy, Lebanon, Tenn. (American Association of Teachers of German, 1950).  
JOSEPH ROSSI, University of Wisconsin (American Association of Teachers of Italian, 1950).  
JAMES B. THARP, The Ohio State University (Central States, 1950).

The Managing Editor and the Business Manager of the *Journal* are ex-officio members of the Executive Committee.

## AFFILIATED ASSOCIATIONS OF MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHERS

CENTRAL STATES—(Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, South Dakota, Tennessee, West Virginia, Wisconsin, and Chicago Society of Romance Teachers)  
*President*, Samuel F. Will, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana  
*Secretary-Treasurer*, James B. Tharp, The Ohio State University, Columbus 10, Ohio  
AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPANISH AND PORTUGUESE—  
*President*, Leavitt O. Wright, University of Oregon, Eugene, Ore.  
*Secretary-Treasurer*, Graydon S. DeLand, Florida State University, Tallahassee, Fla.  
PENNSYLVANIA—  
*President*, M. McManon Owens, Pennsylvania College for Women, Pittsburgh 6, Pa.  
*Secretary-Treasurer*, Louise R. Thompson, Peabody High School, Pittsburgh 6, Pa.  
NEW YORK STATE FEDERATION—  
*President*, Charles A. Choquette, Colgate University, Hamilton, N. Y.  
*Secretary-Treasurer*, Albert J. George, Syracuse University, Syracuse 10, N. Y.  
MIDDLE STATES—  
*President*, A. Marguerite Zouck, Eastern High School, Baltimore 18, Md.  
*Secretary-Treasurer*, Esther J. Crooks, Goucher College, Baltimore 18, Md.  
NEW ENGLAND—  
*President*, Samuel M. Waxman, Boston University, Boston, Mass.

*Secretary-Treasurer*, Edward J. Powers, Technical High School, Boston 15, Mass.

NEW JERSEY—  
*President*, Lucy Teague, High School, Cranford, N. J.  
*Secretary-Treasurer*, Louise Theurer, Senior High School, Westfield, N. J.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF FRENCH—  
*President*, Jacques Feraud, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.  
*Secretary-Treasurer*, George B. Watts, Davidson College, Davidson, N. C.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF ITALIAN—  
*President*, Thomas G. Bergin, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.  
*Secretary-Treasurer*, Joseph Rossi, University of Wisconsin, Madison 6, Wis.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF GERMAN—  
*President*, C. M. Purin, Castle Heights Military Academy, Lebanon, Tenn.  
*Secretary*, Paul Radenhausen, Brooklyn Technic High School, Brooklyn, N. Y.  
*Treasurer*, Edgar H. Hemminghaus, Hunter College, New York, N. Y.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SLAVIC AND EAST EUROPEAN LANGUAGES—  
*President*, Alfred Senn, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia 4, Pa.  
*Secretary-Treasurer*, A. P. Coleman, Fairleigh Dickinson College, Rutherford, N. J.

Entered as second class matter, April 26, 1920, under Act of March 3, 1897, at the post office at Menasha, Wis. Accepted for mailing at special rate of postage provided in Section 1103, Act of October 3, 1917, paragraph 4, Section 538, P. L. & R., authorized September 24, 1918.

THE MODERN LANGUAGE JOURNAL is now published 8 times a year, monthly from January through May and from October through December, by the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers Associations. The subscription price (due and payable in advance) is \$3.00 a year; single copy, 50 cents, postage free. Foreign subscriptions (including Canada) are \$3.50 a year net, in U.S.A. funds (New York Draft or International Money Order); single copy, 50 cents.

All communications for the editors, books for review, and manuscripts should be addressed to THE MODERN LANGUAGE JOURNAL, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

All business letters and advertisements should be addressed to Stephen L. Pitcher, Business Manager, 7144 Washington Avenue, St. Louis 5, Missouri.

# BACK NUMBERS OF

## THE MODERN LANGUAGE JOURNAL

The supply of some back numbers is very limited, and at this moment a few issues are completely out of stock. The JOURNAL will supply back numbers, WHEN AVAILABLE, postpaid, upon receipt of payment at the following rates:

	Per Volume	Per Copy
Volumes I to V (1916-20)	\$10.00	\$1.25
Volumes VI to X (1921-25)	8.00	1.00
Volumes XI to XV (1926-30)	6.00	.75
Volumes XVI to XXV (1931-40)	5.00	.63
Volumes XXVI to XXXI (1941-47)	4.00	.50
Volume XXXII (1948)		.50

U. S. postage stamps (small denominations) will be accepted on amounts less than \$1.00. Otherwise, please remit by check or money order.

### *Purchase of Back Numbers*

The JOURNAL will purchase certain back numbers if they are in good, clean condition. If you have back numbers which you would like to sell please send a list of such numbers to the Business Manager of the JOURNAL, who will tell you promptly whether the JOURNAL needs any of the numbers which you have available. The following issues are urgently needed at this time:

Vol. I, Nos. 1 to 7	Vol. XIII, Nos. 3, 5, 8
Vol. II, Nos. 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8	Vol. XIV, No. 4
Vol. III, Nos. 1 to 8	Vol. XV, No. 1
Vol. IV, Nos. 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 8	Vol. XXII, No. 1
Vol. V, Nos. 1 to 8	Vol. XXIII, No. 5
Vol. VI, Nos. 1, 2, 8	Vol. XXVIII, No. 6
Vol. X, No. 2	Vol. XXIX, No. 2
Vol. XI, Nos. 4, 5	

## THE MODERN LANGUAGE JOURNAL

Stephen L. Pitcher, Business Manager

7144 Washington Avenue, St. Louis 5, Missouri



---

---

*FIRST Adoptions: Colby,  
Colgate, Georgetown - - -*



---

---

---

---

---

---

---

---

**CHOQUETTE**

---

---

---

---

---

---

---

---

**KEATING**

**A SHORT  
REVIEW of  
FRENCH  
GRAMMAR**

*Henry Holt*



